The Education Digest

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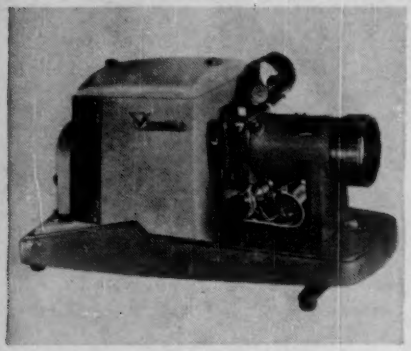

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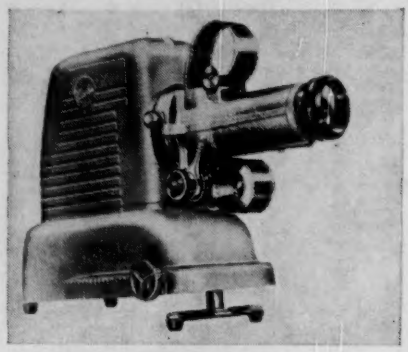

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Volume XXIV JANUARY 1959 Number 5

Every Black Has Its White

Report from the Grass Roots

ROBERT LEWIS SHAYON

In The Saturday Review

RECENTLY I made a three-month trip to gather material for a report on education "from the grass roots." My trip was in preparation for a projected radio series to be produced under the joint auspices of the National Association of Educational Broadcasters and the Educational TV and Radio Center. Dr. Ernest O. Melby, formerly dean of education at New York University and now at Michigan State University, was consultant for the series of programs and planned the trip. My travels took me from one end of the country to the other. I was no V.I.P., so I received no brass treatment and, consequently, I was able to mingle with the help in the boiler room as well as dine at the faculty clubs with the executive vice-presidents and deans of education.

In every city through which I passed the newspapers carried stories about American education, often on the front page. The nation was reacting to Sputnik and to reports of the alleged success of the tightly controlled, severely demanding, and highly selective public-school system in Soviet Russia.

Robert Lewis Shayon is a free-lance writer. Reported from The Saturday Review, *XLI* (*September* 13, 1958), 15-17, 53.

On back porches, in learned journals, perhaps even behind closed doors of Congressional committees, thoughtful citizens were all asking essentially the same questions: "Was the proud American dream of education for *all* the people no longer compatible with the awesome complexities of a technological, time-and-space-shrunk age?" What many really meant, brutally, (though few might admit it) was, "Ought we to train up an intellectual elite to govern us, in place of Mr. Mass Citizen?" The desperate question would never have crossed the minds of Horace Mann or Henry Barnard a century ago.

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At the outset of my trip, I, too, asked the desperate question. Happily for my general state of mind—now, after the completion of my trip—I have undergone a change of heart. I am convinced that our common public-school system, with its promise of maximum development for the individual capacities of all, need not be scrapped for survival in the years ahead. I am persuaded that it would be dangerous to do so. I suggest that the professional educational leadership in the nation has both the wisdom and the capacity to do the job of school modernization which needs to be done, provided our citizens support them with cash, confidence, and cooperation.

I am no educator. On my trip I was merely an inquiring layman. And, of course, I now feel the heady wine of omniscience about education which every Johnny-come-lately experiences. The reader should also evaluate my impressions in terms of the "Hawthorne effect," which suggests that anyone at the center of some novel enterprise tends to emphasize its positive aspects. Nevertheless, the reader may be interested to hear some of the observations which have transformed me into a rooter for our common public-school system.

One over-riding impression I received from my trip is that, in education, every black has its white. For each isolated inadequacy, those who know can readily point to another isolated competency in curriculum method, testing, teachers' salaries, etc., all the way down the line. The school failures I found were monotonously not the failures of our professional educators. They were the deeper failures of our total society pressing in on the classrooms.

I visited a university which is one of the largest annual producers of Ph.D.'s in chemistry. An administrator told me that 25 were graduated this year. Only one will stay in teaching. The two dozen others would prefer to teach, but industry lures them with a starting salary of $8000 a year, in contrast to the university's $5000. "If they go into industry," said the administrator, "we'll never hear of them again. Their knowledge will be locked up in books or behind government security."

ENTHUSIASM, ENERGY, VISION

Everywhere I was impressed by the enthusiasm, energy, and vision of many teachers and administrators. There are those in the profession who are devoted but inadequate—for the all-too-familiar reasons. The educators are "running like hell to stay where they are" under the impact of their multiple problems. And they have taken a cruel and thoroughly unwarranted scapegoat lacing at the hands of a guilty and badly-frightened nation this past year. Their morale is generally pretty low. Nevertheless, they are, as a group, displaying more than their proportionate share of leadership and imagination.

As for hard work, I was shocked to find that I had to be on deck at 7:30 in the morning to catch a professor on his way to class. And I tagged along till after midnight with one superintendent while he attended a heavy schedule of extra-curricular formalities. Such schedules, I had always thought, are the exclusive privilege of society's drones, not its cerebral chiefs.

I found philosophers willing to take education seriously, and educators eager to test their midsummer nights' web of gossamer terms ("interest," "experience," "motivation," etc.) against the sharp challenges of disciplined thinking and semantics. In a Palo Alto school, I found a top-flight mathematician experimenting with the teaching of geometry in the first grade. He was uncompromising in his vocabulary; he insisted on the children being "precise." He didn't give a damn for pupil-oriented teaching theory, and he was drawing no conclusions for another year. The children, before my eyes, nevertheless were telling him how to construct triangles; and the professor, sweating out their blank stares and profound silences, was getting a salutary taste of communicating at a fundamental level.

Midway between the extremes which make up education's formal pyramid, I found several dozen elevations of effectiveness in meeting the theoretical, logistical, and very human demands of an educational house that is bursting at the seams. I found an across-the-country effort to bridge the gap between content and method; to harness the "scholar" and "teacher" in a team; to develop, in our colleges of education, a more firmly grounded teacher and a more modern administrator.

I found a touching love for children among the public-school brethren and a tenderness which our hard, brassy national hedonism has tended to derogate. I found a clear realization that serious intellectual training was imperative for our youth, but a defiant "no" to the assumption that intellect was any more important in the scale of values than "citizenship," "the ability to get along with others," and "loyalty to our democratic aspirations."

Looking back on my three months in education-land, I ask, "Am I now a convert to anti-intellectual, philistinic mediocrity in our culture?" I am still worried about the forces in our country which are pushing us to Orwell's nasty nightmare. I find, however, that our public schools are not their breeding ground. I find that responsible educators are asking questions—important questions—and this is good. The more quickly that citizens outside the schools make it possible for more educators to ask many more questions much faster, the better it will be. I am now persuaded that the public schools are the only secular agency we have at hand to arrest our society's dark pressures and turn us again towards Plato's sunlight. •

1959

Study the Balance Sheet

Challenges Facing the Principalship

O. W. KOPP

In The Elementary School Principalship—A Research Study

THE "Yearbook," which concludes with the above title as its final chapter, reports the research findings of the third survey made by the Department of Elementary School Principals, NEA, conducted by the NEA Research Division. The first study was reported in 1928, and the second, in 1948.

In a sense this final chapter of the current report represents a balance sheet for the elementary-school principalship. It identifies some of the features of the principalship which, according to the study, are in need of immediate improvement. It also points out some features which show evidence of strength and refinement. Individually and collectively, principals must study such a balance sheet. Strengths and weaknesses must be analyzed and acted on. This is the challenge to the elementary-school principal.

The study has clearly indicated that supervising principals are giving much more time to lay organizations than formerly. This is an activity which must continue to grow and strengthen even more. Today there is additional major motivation for community participation. Parents want to know the facts; they have read and heard many conflicting reports. The principal's community contacts give him the opportunity to answer questions about the school and its program directly and specifically.

O. W. Kopp is Assistant Executive Secretary of the Department of Elementary School Principals, NEA. Reported from The Elementary School Principalship—A Research Study, *yearbook issue of the* National Elementary Principal, *XXXVIII* (*September* 1958), *Chapter XII*, 200–19.

Some years ago lay involvement too often resulted in indiscriminate programs for parents. Sometimes the objective seemed to be to get the parents into the school building regardless of purpose or program. This concept of lay participation is completely out of order and violates the philosophy that parents, teachers, and principals, working together, can produce a better school. The principal, who through realistic community participation, knows his community and works toward bringing parents into a planned program, is displaying genuine leadership.

A second area of the principalship needing attention is the matter of clerical help. When more than 25 percent of all the principals reporting in this study agree that lack of clerical help is the main

impediment to greater direct service to the classroom, the profession should take careful note.

The many principals who are handicapped by lack of clerical help should analyze their situations and present the facts to the proper authorities. It needs to be pointed out, however, that freeing the principal is not the objective of clerical help. The question is, "Freeing him for what?" The additional clerical assistance must make possible a richer educational program for children. It is on this basic factor that the case for clerical help must be stated and defended.

THE TEACHING PRINCIPAL

The problems of the teaching principal need also to be solved. The current report shows that 65 percent of those principals involved in regular teaching duties thought *this* the greatest impediment to fulfilling the responsibilities of the principalship. In addition to being confined to the classroom, 78 percent of these teaching principals have no secretarial help. It appears that the teaching principal is actually a classroom teacher with the additional responsibility of personally carrying on all the clerical duties of the school. And when the principal is confined to the classroom and must also spend much of his time in clerical duties, he is limited in his contacts with services such as reading clinics, health centers, and recreation groups. The result is that the children in the school are deprived of the benefits of these community agencies.

Replies to the inquiries for the current study show that 15 percent of supervising principals and 2 percent of the teaching principals administer two or more schools. At the time of the 1928 study the concern was for a greater number of larger administrative units. Now, in 1958, the daily opening of a new elementary school is a reality. This can easily cause a gradual drift into a multischool administration pattern for lack of qualified personnel, or for economy. The difference between "administering" a school and providing leadership in curricular improvement must be kept clearly in mind when such multischool assignments are contemplated.

CERTIFICATION STANDARDS

Certification standards and the question of salaries—two considerations which cannot be divorced—were studied for the current report. All states require administrative personnel of public elementary schools to possess certificates of some form. In spite of obvious limitations, these qualifications do represent a floor of minimum requirements for the principalship. It is to be remembered that these minimum state requirements only too often represent maximum effort on the part of most collegiate institutions preparing principals. They offer the courses demanded by the state, no more, no less.

The formulation of realistic state requirements is to be encouraged,

especially since more states now are setting forth requirements in broader rather than specific terms of hours of credit and subjects to be studied. Formulation of standards required for the principalship at the local level is yet another matter. There the total qualifications of a particular candidate can be carefully and individually considered. Broad training, experience, in-service training, and personality factors can and should be taken into consideration on an individual basis. There appears to be no conflict between certification standards at the state level and efforts for selection at the local community level. Rather, the state standards with over-all specifications should represent a point of departure, not an ultimate goal for the local community in its search for a principal.

THE SALARY QUESTION

The 1948 Yearbook reported a median salary of $3622 for supervising principals. Salaries in 1958, of course, are higher, but the increases have not been as dramatic as some would lead us to think. Several factors must be considered in this salary question.

The elementary-school principal, generally accustomed to a salary of a relatively few thousand dollars, only too infrequently sets as his objective a salary of a five-digit figure. College placement bureaus are in a position to stress the need for better salaries for students who have completed rigorous programs of preparation for the principalship. And if a principal is unwilling to acquire training and experience, or if he has not been successful in the principalship, much positive financial consideration is not warranted. Thus, if local communities want competent leadership, they must pay accordingly. Efforts by various state elementary-principal associations to secure better salaries through legislation have their value. Genuine gains must be made at the local level, too, and association activity helps to stimulate this action.

Many colleges gear their programs to minimum state certification standards. Leaders concerned with the preparation of the elementary-school principalship are aware of this situation. The internship programs and problem seminars are evidence of attempts of colleges and universities to improve the preparation program. Another promising trend developed in recent years will help to break away from the "course" approach in teaching elementary-school administration. The state association of elementary principals and a college or university within the state cooperatively sponsor workshops for principals during the summer months. Here time is devoted to the realistic problems of the principalship. The effect of this trend not only is a service to the principals but tends to raise the sights of the participating college. This cooperative approach to in-service programs should be expanded.

Very useful also have been the

conferences sponsored by the Department of Elementary School Principals, NEA, to study systematically the selection and preparation of the elementary-school principal. Reports from all of these conferences, although differing in detail, reflect common ideas about competencies needed, selection procedures, preservice and in-service preparation, and certification standards. These areas tend to fall into three clusters of competencies—those of personality, background and training, and of professional activity. The latter stresses "doing" and "implementation." This is the point at which the principal utilizes the other competencies. The first two tend to be of little value if the principal is unable to put what he knows into action. The proof of effectiveness comes as the principal works with children, teachers, colleagues, and community.

EVIDENCES OF GROWTH

Just as there are areas of principalship needing concerted effort for improvement, so several aspects of the elementary-school principalship indicate a high degree of development and refinement. Marked evidences of growth should not be denied. Credit must be given to the major accomplishments in the principalship if for no other reason than that awareness of the strengths can lead to continued efforts for improvement.

In 1928 the master's degree, strongly recommended as a basic standard for the principalship, was reported by only 16 percent of the supervising principals. In 1948 it was reported by 67 percent. In 1958, 76 percent of the supervising principals reported the master's degree. Meanwhile, the percent with doctor's degrees had also risen but not so greatly. Yet when 82 percent (master's and higher degrees) of the members of a profession devote an additional year to the study of education problems, trends, philosophy, and the learning process, this percentage of increase must be considered a valid and reliable measure of genuine progress.

A CAREER POSITION

Another significant development in the elementary-school principalship has been its recognition as a career position. Its utilization as a stepping stone to other levels of administration seems to have diminished somewhat. Replying to inquiries being made for the current report, 63 percent of all principals said they regarded the principalship as their final occupational goal.

It is appropriate now for the individual principal, and the associations, to evaluate and select the areas for further study of the problems of the elementary-school principalship with the objective of developing an even better elementary-school program for children. It is to this end that the elementary-school principals of the United States must dedicate themselves in 1958 and the years to follow. •

From the Russian Point of View

The Public School in the Soviet Union

EDITORIAL STAFF OF *Uchitelskaya Gazeta*
In U S S R

THE goal of the Soviet public school is the broadly educated citizen, not the narrow specialist. It aims at education in the round—to provide the student with the cultural and prevocational background with which he can interpret the past and contribute creatively to build the present and the future.

There are more than 200,000 public schools in the Soviet Union with 30 million children in attendance. All children between the ages of 7 and 16 are obliged by law to attend school. A school will be opened wherever there are children—even though there may be no more than a half-dozen within the school district area.

Schools are to be found in the most remote parts of the Soviet Union. In the Far North, beyond the Arctic Circle, for example, there are some 5000 schools for the children of the Evenki, Chukchi, Eskimo, and other peoples. Before the Socialist Revolution of 1917 these peoples had no schools at all; nor did they have a written language.

There are no national or racial restrictions in the Soviet schools. Children study in their native tongues. Textbooks and visual aids are prepared in 59 of the languages spoken in the country.

Uchitelskaya Gazeta is the leading publication of Soviet Union's educational workers. *Reported from* USSR, *published by the Embassy of the Union of Soviet Socialist Republics in the U. S. A. No.* 10, 1–11.

Although schools are supervised by local boards of education and curriculum is planned by the Ministry of Public Education of each of the Soviet Union's republics, all schools are part of the single nationwide system and are supported by government funds. About 13 percent of the entire national budget is allocated to education. For 1957 this came to 78.9 billion rubles [approximately $20 billion]. Since the end of the Second World War new schools have been built at an extraordinarily rapid rate. From 1946 to 1955, the government built 29,555 schools to accomodate 5,006,000 children. By 1960 another four million children will be studying in newly built schools.

There are three types of schools. The primary school covers grades 1 through 4; the seven-year school, grades 1 through 7; the ten-year school, grades 1 through 10. The type of school opened in any given locality is determined by the num-

ber and ages of the children in the school district. All schools are coeducational.

In addition to the general schools, there are special schools for children gifted in music, dance, dramatics, and the fine arts, which combine general education with special training. There are schools for physically and mentally handicapped children and what we call the sanatorium or forest schools for children in delicate health. There are also many evening schools for those young people who work during the day and who want to complete their courses for secondary-school graduation.

The curriculum, drawn up by the Ministry of Public Education of each republic after consultation with teachers, parents, leaders in industry, agriculture, science, and culture, is followed by all the schools of the particular republic.

In the Russian Federation—to use the largest republic in the Soviet Union as an illustration—the curriculum for the first three years includes Russian language, arithmetic, drawing, singing, physical culture, and introduction to manual training. In the 4th grade elementary biology, geography, and history will be added. In the middle and upper grades the subjects are grouped into the humanities—Russian language, literature, foreign language, and history; the science and mathematics courses; and esthetic development—singing, drawing, and physical culture. Certain courses are "required"—as in the case of mathematics, which is studied in every grade. But students may choose optional practical courses designed to give them the basic elements of certain special knowledge and skills. This may be some trade, stenography and typing, or domestic sciences.

Every school also offers the child a wide range of extracurricular activities—such as clubs or circles concerned with activities which interest him. Children may join these clubs or not, as they choose; they are not obligatory. The concern of the teacher is to see that children do not overburden themselves with extracurricular activity to the detriment of health or studies.

The organization of the school is essentially the same for all schools in the country. The school year begins on September 1 and ends between May 20 and June 20, depending on the grade. All children go to school six days a week. A lesson is 45 minutes long.

The school year is divided into four quarters. Marks are given for each quarter, on which the final marks and promotion to the upper grades are based. Children who receive unsatisfactory marks are either left back to take the year's work over or are given a summer assignment to do. At the end of the 7th and 10th grades students take final examinations. In the other grades there are no such examinations in the schools of the Russian Federation and most other republics. But in the schools of the

Ukraine all students from the fifth grade upward take final examinations.

Teachers work from lesson plans which they prepare for each period. These serve as guides for the material to be covered rather than as rigid plans to be strictly followed. They will be altered as the lesson proceeds, depending on the pace at which the children move along. The major teaching aim is to develop the initiative of the child and to lead him on to independent thinking and study. The teacher directs the student's work. He tries to have him master the material presented actively and consciously. The aim is to develop the personality of the young person, as well as his thinking and creative abilities.

BONUS TO TEACHERS

More than 1,800,000 teachers are employed in the schools of the Soviet Union. All have had pedagogical training, which is continually being improved. The teacher's salary scale is equal to that of a skilled engineer, with periodic increments. A teacher with 25 years of service receives, in addition to his salary, a bonus amounting to 40 percent of his salary. There is a two-month paid vacation.

Teaching is a highly respected vocation in the Soviet Union. More than 122,000 teachers are deputies to the national and republican legislatures and the city, town, and village councils. More than 270,000 teachers have been awarded medals for merited service or contributions to pedagogical theory and practice.

There can be little doubt that Soviet progress in science, technology, and the arts owes much to the scope and quality of the country's educational system. But the pace of this progress makes ever greater demands on the school for even better trained, more broadly educated workers and citizens. There is consequently a continual search for ways and means of improving curriculum, teaching methods, and school organization. This search is not confined to specialists in pedagogy. Since the quality of the school so profoundly affects every area of living, everyone discusses school problems—parents, teachers, scientists, industrial and farm workers.

Widespread discussion is going on now with regard to such educational problems as how better to prepare school graduates for professions and trades; how better to achieve an integration of classroom and production work, of general and polytechnical education. It is too early to predict the results of this nationwide consideration of current school problems. Proposals are legion, and experimentation going on now will unquestionably bring changes.

Education cannot be static; it must be ever receptive to the new thoughts and new approaches that new times inevitably bring. That is the main guiding principle of the Soviet school. •

Is Your Resignation Written Out?

Whose Man Is the Superintendent?

JAMES M. SPINNING

In The Nation's Schools

IN my weakest moments I have daydreamed about how nice it would be to operate without a board of education breathing down my neck.

Last week in riffling through some old calendar pads I found that one board member had been in my office for from 10 minutes to three hours on an average of three days out of five for a period of eight years. How did I ever get any work done? Suppose every board member had hung up an equal record!

But my dream of no board at all was just plain childish. A local lay board is of the essence of our democratic system. Even if it were legal and feasible, it would be just as senseless to set up a superintendent as an independent operator as for a board to attempt to operate without a chief executive officer; or, having one to operate *over* or *around* him. As in so many areas of life, the way *out* has to be the way *through*. We just must plan on cordial coexistence.

But, asks the new and skeptical board member (who has just been elected on the usual one-plank platform of "*I* will not be a rubber-stamp for the superintendent"), "How can a board be sure it isn't being mouse-trapped by the superintendent?" Passing over the easy reply that only mice can be mouse-trapped, let me suggest criterions by which a board member—and others—may assess executive competence and performance.

James M. Spinning, Educational Consultant for The Nation's Schools, *was for nearly* 21 *years Superintendent of Schools at Rochester, New York. Reported from* The Nation's Schools, *LXII (August* 1958), 26–27.

The superintendent should have the basic elements of a liberal education, achieved by him with some degree of distinction. But there should be more than an aura of scholarship about him. He should have competence and good experience as a teacher. Somehow I believe that a man handles things better when he knows what he's talking about. A superintendent should be able to command the respect of his teachers in their general fields. Out of his knowledge of the teaching job and process he should be able to inspire and lead his staff, win its support, foster its in-service training and growth, take pride in it, make himself able to brag like crazy, but honestly, about his teachers.

A good superintendent will care

profoundly about people. It is with them, and through them, that he accomplishes results. Particularly, he will care about boys and girls, be able to see them both for what they are and for what they may become. While he should see them as individuals he should see them, too, in relation to their families, and to the community, national and world citizenship. He should know their motivations and their problems. His first approach to youngsters—as to everybody else he deals with—should be affirmative rather than negative.

The superintendent, like his board members, should be community-minded, sensitive to needs and attitudes, able and ready to lead in community enterprises. But, rather than spread himself as thin as floor polish on nonschool endeavors, he will encourage his staff to participate in these projects and to exercise leadership in them.

PARAGON OF PATIENCE

The superintendent will have convictions and the courage of them. But he will also be a paragon of patience and consideration for others. He will work like a horse—and he will be available. He will get things done with all deliberate speed. He will spend more time in improving the school program than in justifying the status quo. He will never gripe, except to his wife.

The superintendent should know the economic facts of life, understand a balance sheet, financial as well as educational. He should never try to make two and two look like three or five—unless he can prove it. He should know where within his staff, and outside of it, to get sound expert judgment for his board in the technical aspects of finance, buildings, and purchasing.

This list of qualifications for a superintendent is only partial. Some of them may be dispensable, but the general pattern is not.

I don't believe in tenure for a superintendent. A statutory term of office or contract long enough to give him a chance to meet reasonable expectations, yes. But in the long view the community must have the power through its proper agents to break an impasse, enable the schools to go forward efficiently and with dignity. Otherwise democracy is defeated. The salary of the superintendent should be high enough to enable him to face the risks, make up for the loss of tenure he incurred when he signed on. He must be prepared to live dangerously, not securely. Otherwise *he* is the mouse in the trap.

I look at the superintendent as a sort of prime minister with his board of education corresponding to the English Parliament. Thus, he continues in office only so long as he can command (and deserve) the confidence of the legislative body, and when he can't he resigns. At least that's what I think.

Under this concept the superintendent has the duty as well as the

privilege of recommending policy to the board and of arguing for it. He may win and have his recommendations accepted, or lose and accept the decisions gracefully. This theory in no way impairs the right and duty of the board to initiate its own legislation. In doing so it would allow, nay request, the superintendent to be heard, and then, like Parliament, in its wisdom, decide. If the superintendent is unable to go along with essential board policy, or suffers repeated defeat of his own recommendations, only one course is left open to him—through the door marked EXIT.

This won't happen more than once in a purple moon if there can be sound distinction between policy forming and administration. When breakdowns occur it is usually through failure to observe this fundamental distinction.

WHEN TO RESIGN

But let's look for a moment at the problem of personnel. New York State law gives the superintendent the duty and right of recommendation and the board the duty and right of approval. It isn't as clear what happens when the superintendent's recommendations are rejected. My own answer is clear, though. If rejection comes in a case that the superintendent regards as top critical or if he encounters repeated rejection, he resigns.

In times long past I have been on the verge of resigning. On the day I took office I wrote out my resignation, complete except for the date, and then put it in the nearest drawer of my desk. Three times I had it out on the table. I never used it or, note this, threatened to use it—it would probably have been snapped up. But I was *prepared* to use it.

Each time a matter of personnel was at stake. On several of these occasions I had to remind a board member that while I was eager to have suggestions from board members, I had no right to cheat them of my honest, independent recommendation. And, in accordance with the prime minister theory, I tried to tell him that the board members were not really voting for a particular candidate but for or against my recommendation—and me.

WHOSE MAN IS HE?

Is the superintendent, then, the board's man? Is he the teachers' man? Is he the pupils' man? Is he the community's man?

Emphatically, the superintendent is the *board's* man. But he is not truly the board's man if he is not also the community's man, and the pupils' man, and the teachers' man. And in a real sense he must also be God's man. I hope he won't forget that many people who differ with him are also God's men. I hope he will remember that lovely line from Christopher Fry's play, *The Lady's Not for Burning*. "A halo is just one more thing to keep clean." •

We Must Put Our House in Order

The Decline of Educational Philosophy

PAUL WOODRING

In Phi Delta Kappan

IT is my thesis that educational philosophy in America has fallen on evil days. The difficulty is not so much that we have accepted false philosophies, or even that we have no philosophy at all—though that is true of far too many educators—but that we have ceased to give proper attention to philosophical problems.

Because we have neglected these problems we make decisions about the curriculum on an *ad hoc* basis without proper attention to the basic problem of the aims, purposes, and meaning of education. Because we have no clear intellectual basis for rejecting their demands, we give in all too easily to noisy minorities within each community who demand additions to the school's responsibilities without first asking whether these are consistent with the important educational aims. Because we have not given sufficient attention to philosophical problems, we are afraid to attempt to discriminate between the profound and the trivial, or even to see that we must.

RESPONSIVE TO WHOSE WILL?

It is true that the public schools in a free nation must be responsive to the will of the people in the long run, but because many of our teachers and school administrators are innocent of philosophy they have confused this to mean that they must satisfy each demanding citizen in the community. If a few noisy citizens demand a marching band, they get a marching band with a bevy of drum majorettes thrown in. If a few parents complain about high standards, we lower the standards for all the children. We have become afraid to say no.

This is not a proper application of the principle of basing our free institutions on the public will. The public will is not to be determined by the whims of the few but rather, as Walter Lippmann has put it, "the public interest may be presumed to be what men would choose if they saw clearly, thought rationally, acted disinterestedly and benevolently." Educational leadership requires the ability to assist the public to see educational problems in perspective and to think clearly about them, so that their decisions may be disinterested and benevolent. This is possible only if the leader himself has a clear un-

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derstanding of the philosophical issues underlying educational decisions.

In saying that we ought to be more sophisticated about educational problems, I do not at all mean to say that we must agree. In our pluralistic culture, full agreement on philosophical issues is neither possible nor necessary. But tolerance of diversity does not mean that any individual who aspires to leadership can be excused from the responsibility for having some firm convictions of his own, based on evidence, clear thinking, and value judgments.

No one of us has the right to say what is the "proper" educational philosophy for American teachers; all we have a right to do is express our own views for their acceptance or rejection, using the most forceful arguments at our command. But while we cannot say what is the best philosophy, we can certainly say that some points of view are not philosophical at all. A refusal to make decisions or to organize our ideas in such a way as to reveal internal inconsistencies is not a philosophy. Philosophy, says Philip Phenix, author of *Philosophy of Education,* "involves the organization, interpretation, clarification, and criticism of what is already within the realm of the known and the experienced." If an individual fails to organize, interpret, clarify, and criticize his own ideas, he is not dealing with problems philosophically.

Our failure to grapple with the philosophical problems of education has made us much less effective than we ought to be in dealing with the critics of the public schools, for much of recent criticism *is* philosophical in its import. In answering the criticisms of Bestor, Hutchins, Adler, and Mortimer Smith, it is futile to content ourselves with pointing out the over-generalizations, the exaggerations, and the occasional misstatements of fact, for the intelligent reading public regards these as but minor details, even as legitimate literary devices. The important issues are philosophical, and so long as the literate public believes that the critics have a firmer philosophical base than that of the educators they will continue to lend their support to the critics.

Basically, the literate public is not greatly interested in any of the conflicts which have been going on between professional educators and academic groups within the universities. But it *is* very much interested in the question of what is the primary purpose of institutionalized education and the question of how this purpose may best be accomplished. At the present moment in history it is prone to agree with the critics that the schools have tried to do too much, have accepted too many of the responsibilities best retained by the home, and that, as a result, they have neglected their fundamental responsibility.

This is a time to ask the right questions about education. Educators and their critics alike have

been too much concerned with the question of whether the schools of 50 years ago achieved their academic aims better then do the schools of today. The evidence does not support the critics, but neither does it support the view of many educators that the older schools were iniquitous institutions fit only for scorn and ridicule. Let us learn what we can from the past while resolutely facing the future. The real and important question is not whether the schools of 1900 were better or worse than those of today but whether the schools of 1958 are as good as they might be, ought to be, and can become.

A SOPHISTICATED VIEW

To fill the philosophical vacuum in the schools requires that every teacher and every administrator take a more sophisticated view of the fundamental problems of education. Every teacher must become a philosopher. Every teacher should have a clear view of what he is trying to accomplish and of how his aims are related to the basic problems of reality, of truth, and of value. The secondary teacher should understand how his subject fits into the scheme of things and should understand its limitations and its relation to other social institutions in order not to preempt the responsibilities of the home and the community.

The administrator, even more than the teacher, should be able to interpret the role of the school to the community and to work with community leaders in redefining that role. If he is to do this effectively he must be at least as well oriented philosophically as the most intelligent adults in the community, for his job is not that of "selling" a program but that of participating in intellectual discourse at the highest levels.

How can we best achieve the necessary philosophical sophistication on the part of the teachers and administrators? It can best be accomplished—in my opinion—when it becomes a definite part of their education. To me it seems best that the philosophical problems of education be explored in a separate course. Whether such a course in educational philosophy should come at the undergraduate or the graduate level has been the subject for debate and we have little clear evidence as to which is more effective.

But if the major course is postponed until the fifth year—which means that for many students it will not come until after a period of teaching—it seems essential that the student be at least introduced to philosophical problems in his first professional course. At the point where he moves from liberal into professional education he should begin to ask what education is all about. His views about the nature of reality, truth, and the good life should be challenged. The questions will not be answered at this point—they will never be fully answered—but he should become aware of the problems, of the fact

that people differ and have a right to differ.

On questionnaires in which graduates have been asked to rate the value of their professional courses, educational philosophy often falls low on the list. It is my opinion that when teachers react unfavorably to the value of their courses in educational philosophy, such courses have been badly taught, often by individuals without the proper preparation and interests. When well taught, the philosophy of education should be related to actual experience with children in a learning situation. But it will not stem directly from such experience. A teacher may spend 40 years with children and yet never achieve anything even remotely resembling a philosophy. The development of a truly philosophic point of view requires intellectual activity: reading, thinking, discussion, and critical evaluation—activities most likely to be found in a college classroom in the company of one's intellectual peers.

The graduate schools of education have a clear responsibility for making sure that each candidate for a doctoral degree in education has a firm grasp of philosophical issues. The fact that the student plans to be a school administrator or guidance specialist in no way reduces this responsibilty. The administrator who cannot deal effectively with problems of goals and values is at best a manager rather than a true educational leader, and the guidance specialist who has no clear idea of the over-all aims of education runs a serious risk of guiding in the wrong direction. But graduate schools should give particular attention to the preparation of those who are to teach courses in the foundations of education in our colleges and universities. If these individuals are philosophically naive, the whole program of teacher education will become a shambles.

The long-range solution to our problems will require that teachers on all levels, including the academic scholars in our universities, take a more knowledgeable and sophisticated view of the philosophic issues in education. Classicists, scientists, and historians, particularly those who plan to devote a large part of their time to college teaching, need the same broad orientation in fundamental educational issues as do the elementary and secondary teachers, and eventually this orientation will become a part of the preparation of college teachers.

When this occurs, the tensions between professional educators and scholars in other fields will be greatly lessened, but this happy day seems a long way off because of the sad state of confusion in educational philosophy. First, we must put our own house in order. •

MAKE your today the pupil of yesterday.—*Business Briefs.*

1959

Schools Are as Good as People Want Them to Be

Let's Speak the Truth about Our Schools

PAUL E. ELICKER

In The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals

TO sound off and to generalize from a few isolated cases about our American high school in our public press and in the columns of our popular magazines is today's fad and fashion. Some of this derogatory characterization of our public institution is based on fact, more on fiction and on personal opinion and desire, and still more on personal generalizations from a few isolated situations in our schools.

To list just a few of the current characterizations of the American high school, here is a sampling of what we hear and see . . . "The schools do nothing well," "The Russian program is superior to ours," "The talented are neglected," "Too little science and mathematics are offered in the schools," "We are less educated than 50 years ago," "Schools offer a lot of 'gobbledygook' such as driver education, homemaking, vocational training, musical folderol, athletic showmanship, etc." Many of these ill-supported statements and denunciations are made of our schools by conservatives, radicals, self-proclaimed crusaders, enterprisers of the sensational. Many are made by persons who are genuinely sincere and desirous of improving our schools.

Before referring to the evidence about our schools that is "in plain sight" let me speak for a moment about the administrators or educationists, or "sacred cows" as they have been characterized, sneeringly, by some present-day critics who have the advantage of vocalizing through the press, radio, and television—agencies that are generally sympathetic and cooperative. Many of the devoted men and women who have made education their profession and their means of livelihood know only too well the weaknesses, the inadequacies, and the existence of some superficial educational offerings in their schools.

These weaker portions of our educational program for youth are receiving and will continue to receive their attention. These people in the profession desire and seek the constructive criticisms of the schools and the cooperation of fair-minded and understanding citizens in their attack on this problem which some want to label "the

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crisis" in education. My experience over many years with many leaders in the educational profession leads me to this opinion about them.

We have been told that the academically talented are being neglected. But the truth is that work with superior or talented students has been going on in many of our schools for some time. In addition, programs for the talented in our schools—some with grants of money—are growing in number throughout the country.

Some critics claim that our schools are "without scholars." Yet students are meeting increasing standards of academic achievement and passing more difficult entrance examinations to enter highly selective colleges. In passing, it should be said that an extremely high percentage of all the students elected to Phi Beta Kappa in college are graduates of this "scholarless" American public high school.

The most misstated statistics today are those which attempt to point out that too little mathematics and science are available in our schools. Not only are statistics misquoted but authorities are ignored. For example, in recent years reports from the National Science Teachers Association of the NEA show a steady growth in the number of students taking science in our secondary schools. There must be malicious intent or vindictive motive in making false and dishonest statements when prominent persons continue to restate the same false and inaccurate statistics even after their attention is called to the misrepresentations and to reliable sources or information on the issues that are available to them.

To those critics who declare we are less educated than 50 years ago, we can give documentary evidence that we are, in fact, better educated as a nation than we were 40 or 50 years ago. The studies which show that we now are better educated are on record and available. The critics again are not speaking the truth. They are ignoring or misinterpreting objective evidence.

Regarding the claims that systems of education in certain foreign countries are superior to ours, the statements of critics are debatable. Speaking of Russian education, for example, many claim that a comparative objective study of the two systems of education would not be significant at this time largely because of the incomplete and unreliable information about Russian education available to us today. Preliminary reports, however, do *not* support the claim that Russian secondary education, if fairly compared, is superior to American education.

Many of our most vocal critics of education do not fully understand the public high school of today, or do not make much of an effort to understand it and its present-day function in our society. There are those who may understand it fully, but are unwilling to accept it as it is. The many evolv-

ing changes in our society are determining the kinds of schools we have today. Schools are growing in size and number. Our public secondary school now has approximately 90 percent of our total youth-age group in school. In 1910, we had 14.2 percent, just a few more than were headed toward higher education at that time. Many more of the less academically competent attend school today than attended the school of 50 years ago.

Yes, we are realizing "the great American dream" as one writer puts it. But, do we want it now that we have it? The educators of today cannot be held wholly responsible for this growth and development of the public secondary school. Whatever problems the public secondary school presents in the eyes of some are the inheritance of the educators of today. They complain very little about the problems of education for "all the children of all the people" they now have on their hands.

THE GOBBLEDY-GOOK

Here it is appropriate to refer to the charge that there is too much "gobbledy-gook" in the school curriculum—such as driver education, homemaking, vocational training of many kinds, etc. It is only right and proper for our citizens to reexamine the present vocational offerings in our schools and to reduce, change, or even eliminate them from the curriculum of the public secondary school. However, the solutions offered to the schools to provide for these students now taking these vocational courses seem impractical and not in harmony with the emergence of the changing social and economic demands in this modern technological and scientific age.

The critics say: "Why not let the home take the responsibility to teach girls homemaking? Why teach or train boys and girls in the necessary skills for jobs in industry and business? Should not," they say, "business and industry train their typists and secretaries, their machinists, and auto repairmen? Why train youth to drive cars safely and in a manner which gives a high degree of safety to others? Why should not the parents take this responsibility?"

I suppose this would have been the pattern if parents had been willing to assume this responsibility. But they were unwilling to do so. Many states now have legislation for, or give financial support to, driver training for youth in our schools. And speaking specifically of driver education, here is one kind of "gobbledy-gook" in our schools on which we have ample evidence that a greater degree of safety on our highways has been achieved. Here is a kind of education that has promoted the general welfare.

The curriculum offerings in today's secondary school have found their way there through the expressed desire of our citizens to meet the growing needs of the

Angler's Guide in Fishing for the Talented

youth in today's world. It is possible that the program may be in need of a thorough overhauling and reevaluation. That our citizens can determine.

Many taxpaying citizens, with no actual professional experience in the secondary school but with an abiding interest and faith in this great American institution, do not want to see the American public high school "flayed" in the public press and characterized as a "carnival" and a school that "does nothing well." It is not the truth. I am determined to speak up for it, even though I realize its many weaknesses and the urgent need for improvement. For, with all its faults and weaknesses, I am convinced that America has the greatest educational system in the world. It has produced eminent men and women in all walks of life, even leaders in science that, as a group, lead the world in great achievement. As an example, 14 of the 15 leading scientists who developed our first successful Vanguard are graduates of this American public secondary school.

Our public schools are as good as the people want them to be. They need improvement in many places and few are so good that they cannot be made even better. But, let's speak the truth about them so that they may prosper on fact and not falter on fancy.

Our educators have no tested pattern of education from any other country to guide them in giving the American people what they believe they want for their children—the best education for "all the children of all the people." Our public secondary school should meet all the essential needs of all our youth—the scholar, the scientist, the professional, the homemaker, the mechanic, and the artisan. If our schools can provide such an educational program, the lives of all our people will be enriched and we shall more nearly live the happy and productive life in our American way of life.

Our educators need intelligent support and encouragement and helpful cooperation in assuming the responsibility to which they are devoting their lives. They will not solve their perplexing problems to the satisfaction of the parents and school youth through "brickbats" and unfair and unwarranted criticism of their heavy tasks.

I have no sure-fire prescription for all the educational ills of today, but I can estimate what will be most helpful to our educational leaders. They need more qualified teachers, more buildings and more classrooms, more teaching equipment, more financial support, better salaries for the competent teachers, more public understanding of the critical issues involved, an increased respect in the community for the members of the teaching profession, and, above all, more personal encouragement for attempting to provide an effective program of education for all the youth under their care. •

1959

Angler's Guide in Fishing for the Talented

Measurement and Prediction--Tests of Academic Ability

HENRY CHAUNCEY

In The Identification and Education of the Academically Talented Student in the American Secondary School

THERE are many kinds of tests with many purposes and uses. Here I shall discuss the kinds of tests which have proven most practical and effective for widespread use in identification of academic talent. Such tests, whether labeled "intelligence," "aptitude," or "ability," consist usually of two chief components generally called "verbal" or "linguistic," on the one hand, and "quantitative" or "mathematical," on the other. These two components do not measure all of the dimensions of academic talent, but what they do measure seems clearly and consistently related to academic achievement.

Such tests, of course, have their limitations. We have no particular evidence that they measure potential creativity, original thinking, inventiveness. They certainly will not single out for us the individual who will discover new intellectual territory, as distinct from the other individuals who will settle and cultivate that territory. In short, we cannot feed results of a secondary-school standardized testing program into an electronic computer and expect a guaranteed roster of future Einsteins, Pasteurs, and other outstanding individuals to emerge. No matter how refined our techniques become, it is safe to say, with William James, that "individual . . . biographies will never be written in advance."

Henry Chauncey is President, Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey. *Reported from* The Identification and Education of the Academically Talented Student in the American Secondary School, *The Conference Report, National Education Association,* (*February* 1958), 27–35.

What tests can do for us, if we use them knowledgeably, is to help to identify a larger number of students who are in the score ranges from which creative scientists, engineers, philosophers, historians, economists, psychologists, jurists, educators are most likely to emerge. Thus, if we are fishing for sizeable intellectual talent, standardized testing will not single out the species or net the catch for us. But it will tell us which pools are likely to contain the "big ones."

The assertions I have made are based on literally hundreds of carefully conducted studies which have produced convincing evidence of a substantial relationship between test scores and such criterions of

intellectual achievement as high-school marks, college marks, college graduation, graduate degrees, and occupational "levels."

The specific amount of relationship has, of course, varied according to specific tests, criterions, populations, time, place, and other experimental characteristics. We can not say categorically that a certain amount of statistical relationship is universally true and can be applied accurately to every situation. On the contrary, good practice requires local research in order to derive the maximum benefit from testing for any given purpose, such as admission to X college or prediction of success in first-year algebra at Z high school.

Even in less specific settings, however, the general tendencies are clear enough so that predictions can be safely and helpfully expressed in terms of probabilities or expectancies. Thus, the Commission on Human Resources and Advanced Academic Training was able to give us in its 1954 report (*America's Resources of Specialized Talent; A Current Appraisal and a Look Ahead*) educational expectancies for 14-year-olds at various test-score levels. These represented not a single "college, city, year, graduating class, or other limited sample," but were "estimates for the U.S. as a whole in the middle of the twentieth century."

Thus, 14-year-olds with a test score equivalent to 80 on the Army General Classification Test scale, somewhat below the national average, have about 60 chances out of 100 of entering high school and 23 chances out of 100 of graduating, about five chances out of 100 of entering college and one chance (or less) out of 100 of graduating. For 14-year-olds with a test score of 100 ("average" in respect to the total population of 14-year-olds), the expectancies are higher: 85 chances out of 100 of entering high school, 60 chances of graduating, 18 of entering college, and 8 of graduating. For a higher score (AGCT=120), the respective chances would rise to 98 out of 100 for entering high school, 90 for graduating, 37 for entering college, and 25 for graduating.

TEST AT WHAT AGE?

It is clear that scores from tests given at age 14 can predict, with some degree of effectiveness, educational level likely to be attained. Other studies have demonstrated that scores on tests given at age 14 correlate very highly with scores on similar tests given four years later. Furthermore, the earlier test scores predict success in college about as well as those obtained during the senior year in high school. Now, I want to reiterate that this doesn't mean, by any manner, that you can say just exactly how well each student is going to do in college at the time he is 14 years of age. There are individual differences here. Some do better and some do worse. What I am saying is that you can predict how well an individual will do in college just

about as accurately at age 14 as at age 18. This is, to most people, a rather surprising fact.

How effective are tests in the prediction of college success? Suppose one-fifth of the students in a certain college make an honor record and at the other extreme one-fifth are dropped for academic failure. Obviously, we would like to know in advance which students are which. Suppose, then, we give all students a typical test of scholastic aptitude before they enter college, and suppose we choose two groups of students on the basis of test scores—the 20 percent with the best scores and the 20 percent with the worst scores. How many of the students who, according to the test, are the *top* 20 percent will do honor work, and how many will fail? Similarly, how many in the *bottom* fifth on the test will fail, and how many do distinguished work?

Although the results of specific studies vary, we can say with confidence what is usually found. Typically, of the students in the top 20 percent on the test, about 45 percent will do honors work; an additional 52 percent will do satisfactory work; and only about 3 percent will fail. In other words, for every failing student you will have 15 honor students plus 17 adequate students. Now let's look at the students in the bottom 20 percent on the test. Of these, only about 3 percent will do honors work; 52 percent more will pass; 45 percent will fail. For every honor student, 15 failures. The scores in the middle ranges, I find, do not give such a clear-cut result, but, as actuarial forecasts go, they, too, are reasonably good.

JUNIOR-HIGH TESTING

It seems, then, that the junior-high-school years are an especially timely period for administering a standardized testing program. Prediction at this point is practical and appropriate in terms of (*a*) psychological development of individuals and (*b*) the organization of our educational system:

(*a*) The growth of intellectual abilities, as reflected by standardized test scores, has stabilized by this age-period to the extent that an eighth-grade test is likely to be nearly as effective as a twelfth-grade test in predicting—let us say—college freshman marks.

(*b*) Our educational system generally requires of pupils differential curriculum choices at the end of the eighth (or sometimes ninth) grade. Decisions made at this point are in close interaction with long-range educational and occupational choices. These decisions tend to close some doors or hold them open. School administrators also must often make particularly significant decisions around this period about the "ability grouping" of pupils in such subjects as English and mathematics.

Although the junior-high-school years offer both an excellent opportunity and a pressing need to marshal efforts at identification of in-

tellectual ability, I do not mean to imply that such efforts should be confined to those grades. On the contrary, identification should be a continuous process. The formal program directed at such critical choice-points as eighth and twelfth grades should, ideally, build on previous activities and lead into future ones.

In closing, I would like to refer to an investigation made several years ago of men in *Who's Who* and *American Men of Science* who took the Scholastic Aptitude Test of the College Entrance Examination Board at the time they were applying for admission to college. Some 281 individuals who had taken this test were found and their scores were looked up. The individuals had achieved prominence in a variety of fields: government, writing, education, business, law, banking, engineering, the sciences, and other vocations.

By relating the scores of these men to known score distributions of those who had taken the test, it was found that a person with a score on the Scholastic Aptitude Text equivalent to 120-130 on the Army General Classification Test had 2.5 times as great a chance of being in *Who's Who* or *American Men of Science* as a person in the score range of 110-120. A person with a score equivalent to between 130-140 had 4 times as great a chance as a person scoring between 110-120; a person with a score between 140-150 had 7 times as great a chance; a person with a score of over 150 had 14 times as great a chance.

These results seem to me to indicate that whatever is being measured by the tests is important not only in predicting the educational achievement of these individuals, but also their success in the various fields they had chosen for their life's work. Also these results are quite encouraging, particularly in view of the fact that the Scholastic Aptitude Test in the early days contained only verbal questions: There was no quantitative material included, and, particularly in the case of scientists, the mathematical section would have been the better predictor of future success.

This, then, is the general picture of testing and its effectiveness at the present time. To me, the results mean that tests are by no means infallible but that they provide a highly serviceable degree of accuracy. Properly understood and properly used, tests offer a potent aid in the selection, guidance, or placement of students, and they can be used with confidence at the eighth-grade level without fear that the results at that point are ephemeral or of only passing significance.

FOR each pupil with a spark of genius, there are 10 with ignition trouble.—From *Mississippi Educational Advance.*

Education of Administrators Now Puts

Greater Emphasis on People

DANIEL E. GRIFFITHS

In New York State Education

THE great national educational administration organizations – the American Association of School Administrators, the National Council of Chief State School Officers, and the Division of Rural Service –have been concerning themselves with the state of American educational leadership. During the years after World War II several exploratory conferences were held in various sections of the country. The outcome of these conferences was reflected in the decision of the Kellogg Foundation to support a nation-wide project for improving educational administration. To accomplish this purpose, it has made grants to eight universities situated in all parts of the country.

As a result of the work of groups working in these educational institutions, steps now are under way to revise programs so as to incorporate the major findings from the disciplines into a *new* content of education for administration. Administration now is being thought of differently than it was in the past. *Administration is now thought of as the direction of living in the social organization which is the school system.*

With this orientation, it can be seen that what is taught to educational administrators should be a synthesis of the knowledge we have concerning the behavior of human beings. Let us try to illustrate this point. One of the major areas of administration is that of organization. Organization is the structuring of the social system in which people live and work. Administration is the direction of living in this social structure. While we have had many ideas about organization, the research of such people as Elton Mayo, Roethlisberger, Likert, and Worthy have laid the groundwork for a new concept of organization. The basis for the new concept is simply this: "It is possible to structure an organization so as to predetermine, in some degree, the nature of its human relations." This concept indicates some of the areas of knowledge in which the administrator of the future must be competent.

A new area of considerable concern to administration is one from social psychology called the study of *perception*. Certain questions

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are raised such as: How does the administrator perceive his role in the school and the community? How does the teacher perceive her role? How does the administrator perceive the teacher? Are the perceptions in conflict? Through knowledge of perception gained through his studies the administrator can develop spectacles through which he can see the administrative situation in which he is working.

But there are other topics also crucial to the preparation of administrators which will help him toward successful educational leadership. The administrator needs to understand a great deal about motivation, communication, power structure, authority, group dynamics, decision-making, and leadership.

OVER-ALL CHANGES

While these are topics somewhat new to the education of administrators, and will constitute the basis for preparation in the field of administration, there are certain other over-all changes which are slowly but surely taking place in the preparation of educational administrators. The first of these is that the administrator will be, in his training, basically concerned with theory rather than being exclusively concerned with practice. To this end, an attempt is being made to develop a theoretical basis for teaching and practice of administration. By theoretical is not meant something which is opinion, ethereal, or ephemeral. The attempt is rather to develop an over-all theory which will encompass the practice of administration. The theory sought will be more practical than the practices now taught. To be specific, what is being attempted by many is to derive a theoretical background against which the administrator can find answers to his many problems. As an illustration of this we might think of what is commonly called morale, or morale problems.

Such a morale problem is one in which members of the school staff are discontented with their work situation. If we establish a way of thinking about morale such as has been the method of the past, in terms of practices or specifics—such as, if teachers receive more money, their morale will be higher—we will never get anywhere with the problem. If, on the other hand, we consider morale as the atmosphere in which individuals work and as the screen through which the people in organization perceive their problems, then we will start to make progress in this area. It is this kind of analysis which is now permeating programs of educational administration.

I think it would be safe to wager that if educational administrators were to return to their universities 20 years or 25 years hence, they would not recognize the programs of preparation. While the content of administration is definitely changing, even more obvious changes are taking place in the

area of methods of teaching administration. Larger and larger numbers of courses are now being taught by the case method. In the classroom students are given the opportunity to develop for themselves both a method of solving problems and the experience of defending their solutions.

Another innovation in administrator training is the internship. Through this method the embryo administrator gains experience under the guidance of a successful educational administrator, usually with salary and in conjunction with his work at a university. He gets his "baptism of blood" so to speak without anyone being hurt in the process.

Another area which is new to the training of administrators is that of preparation in the basic skills of administration. Many of these skills are those of speaking, listening, business management, leading groups in discussion, analyzing the community, in developing in-service programs, formulating salary schedules, and the like. In other words, those things which are at the skill level will be taught as skills, not merely as textbook readings. This is a change which has been needed for a long while and is just now coming into effect. A new technique called the "simulated situation" is now being developed and may well be the greatest step forward in administrator education that has yet been devised.

In summary—when we speak of the changes in educational administration—we may say that the emphasis of preparation is moving away from bonds, buildings, and busses, and is moving toward the true content of administration, which is people. The administrator is thought of as the person who directs and controls the living in the social organization that is the school. This person must be highly skilled in all of the knowledges which focus on the behavior of human beings. In order that he exercise the skills and knowledges that he has, he needs to develop a set of values which will enable him to function in a democratic society. Education administration in the future will call for skill far beyond that which is now required, and there will be men ready to meet the challenge. •

OUR schools might well cease to think of themselves as merely training centers which are preparing individuals for future life. They should recognize their role in education as a process by which society renews and perpetuates itself as a society. If this process is to be effective today, the schools must be part of the community. In turn, the community must be part of the school. Each renews and invigorates the other.—*Charles S. Johnson.*

Progress Is Being Made

Extension and Improvement of School Education

PEDRO T. ORATO

In Unesco Background Document No. 106

THE task which Unesco faces in its work of extending and improving school education in the world of today, may be grasped, in part, when a study is made of the numbers of children which make up what is known as the "School Age Group." There are, in the world, some 550 million children between the ages of 5 and 19. Of these 30 out of every 100 attend primary school, 7 out of every 100 are in secondary or post-secondary schools, and 63 out of every 100 (or nearly 2 out of every 3) are not in school or have never been to any school at all.

Out of 100 children in school, 79 (or 4 in 5) are in the primary grades where more than half of them do not go beyond the second grade, 18 are in the secondary schools and 3 are in a college or university. And to make matters still worse, many children are under teachers whose education amounts to just a little more than that of the pupils, that is, the equivalent of less than the secondary level.

A large number of the children in this world come from homes with illiterate or semiliterate parents where the application of what is taught in school, meager as it is, is often nullified because the parents are unable or unwilling to co-

Pedro T. Orato is a member of Unesco's Department of Education. Reported from Unesco Education Department's Background Document No. 106, 1–4.

operate. Thus, at school the pupils are taught to brush their teeth after meals and before going to bed and to open the windows at night. But at home they are not provided with toothbrushes or their parents require that the windows be closed to keep bad air in and the ghosts out.

In many cases, too, the schools themselves are without facilities for the practice of health habits and citizenship duties. The teachers may handle six or eight grades, or may be required to teach two or three groups of pupils during the day. The result is an overcrowded curriculum and an emphasis on verbal teaching. This often leads to waste and absenteeism which, in turn, accounts for the fact that a great percentage of the pupils who have learned to read and write become illiterate a short time after leaving school for lack of practice.

Such facts indicate the magnitude of the problems to be faced. The many and diverse needs can

be listed under two main heads: the extension of educational facilities and the improvement of the school curriculum—the first to accommodate as many school-age children as possible and to keep them in school long enough to acquire permanent education, and the second to improve their living standards through relating the content of education to the problems that confront them in their homes and community. A corresponding problem is how to obtain the money with which to provide more buildings, textbooks, and teaching equipment, and to pay the teachers' salaries.

To meet the needs and problems of education the world over, Unesco has devised a variety of approaches, the main purpose of which is to help people—especially in the less developed countries—to help themselves in discovering their educational needs, in planning to meet them, and in seeing the school as an indispensable instrument of modern living. Development of educational information and insight has been promoted by making available to needy countries the experience of more advanced communities. This has been done through exchange of publications, by conferences, seminars, and workshops, and by sending experts to less developed countries and fellows to institutions abroad where they could get better training than was available at home.

Among the many educational projects that have been developed during the last decade only a few can be mentioned here. First of all, there was the project called Extension and Improvement of Education, more popularly known as free and compulsory education, the purpose of which was: first, to raise the school-leaving age and to lower the entrance age in an effort to increase the amount of education available for everybody; second, to equalize and universalize educational opportunities; third, to improve the quality of the curriculum and the methods of teaching; and fourth, to help solve the problem of teacher shortage and to improve the training of teachers. This project was undertaken through educational conferences in different regions of the world where there was the greatest need for it.

As a result of the exchange of ideas and information on the extension and improvement of educational facilities, the need for more and better schools, curriculums, textbooks and teaching materials, and better trained teachers emerged. Unesco endeavored to meet this by hiring and sending experts to countries that requested them and who were willing to meet a part—approximately half—of the expenses involved.

Along with the improvement in general education, teacher-training curriculums are being revised to give future teachers more competence not only in teaching subject matter, but in undertaking duties that are of extracurricular nature, and in relating the school subjects

to such activities. A recent venture along this line is the joint Thailand-Unesco teacher-training project in Ubol, a rural province near Bangkok. Here trainees are given practice in village work. Through workshop meetings, principles of community education are discussed, demonstrations are held to tie up subject matter and community activities and teaching materials prepared from resources that are available in the community.

One of Unesco's latest developments is the study of educational reform as a whole, the aim being to help countries to look at their systems of education as a whole instead of trying to improve any one aspect of it at a given time. In September, 1958, a seminar on school reform was held in India attended by delegates from some 23 countries. They studied the way in which educational systems have been reformed in a number of countries outside the region, to see how their own systems could be similarly improved. Such reform must necessarily be long-range in scope and quality.

The numerous techniques that have been exchanged or developed as a result of Unesco's various projects are now being applied on a mass basis in Latin America where a major project in free and compulsory education, curriculum development, and teacher training, including the preparation of instructors for training colleges, has just been started. This project represents the first great effort in teacher-training intended to develop universal primary education in a given period of time in a specific region of the world. It is expected that at the termination of the project—that is, in 10 years—the Latin American states will have formulated and put into operation systematic plans for the development of primary education, that the necessary revisions of the curriculum will be satisfactorily developed and their socio-economic status improved.

One wishes to speak of progress and trends in Unesco's undertakings. But all of this is a slow process and the results are difficult to determine within so short a time as the life span of Unesco. There are, however, indications showing the changes that are being made in various aspects of education. For example, every year there is slight, though significant, increase in educational expenditures; there is a constant move towards educational autonomy; free schooling is constantly being extended and, in a number of countries, the school-leaving age is being raised. Half of the countries in which information is available have revised their primary-school curriculums during the last few years and a large number are beginning to revise the curriculums for the secondary level. And the problem fo teacher shortage has passed the critical state—at the primary level. This shortage, however, is becoming increasingly widespread at the secondary stage.

Don't Show Shock

When Children Use Bad Language

PAUL L. HILL

In The Instructor

WHY are parents concerned about "bad" language?

Everybody wants to be "nice," and bad language is not "nice." What is probably more important, children who use bad language reflect unfavorably on their parents' training. A common reaction is, "I'll bet he heard that at home."

What is "bad" language?

Words of themselves are neither good nor bad. But some words have a social stigma attached to them. Certain words that are approved, or at least tolerated, in some groups are strongly disapproved of in others. It is important for the teacher, when attempting to help parents, to consider whether or not they *really* disapprove of the words that are objectionable to her.

Most words that are disapproved pertain to sex, elimination, or are considered swear words. Words in the first two categories should not be banned entirely. They are, however, used only in conversations among members of the family or when discussing health with authorized persons. They are not in good taste for normal public discussion.

Why do children use bad language? Some of the reasons include:

1. The ideas they want to express exceed the vocabulary provided by parents; they resort to the vocabulary used by their contemporaries.

2. They like to adventure with words just as they like to adventure by climbing trees.

3. They like to appear grown-up, and bad language seems to be a prerogative of the adult who is his "own boss."

4. They are imitating someone they admire or they are reacting to frustration the way they have heard some adults react.

Paul L. Hill is a psychologist in the Millburn, New Jersey, Public Schools. *Reported from* The Instructor, *LXVIII (November* 1958), 8–9.

How can the teacher help the parent?

You can deal wisely with bad language in your classroom. Then you can say to the parent: "I do this when the problem of bad language comes up in school."

The following do's and don't's apply to both school and home:

1. Don't show shock. Shocking adults with bad language is fun and things that are fun and that get results are repeated.

2. Don't use excessive or strong punishment. It frequently makes

a child resentful. The vigor of the punishment shows the child how strongly the adult feels, and how effectively bad language can be used to get even.

3. Don't *ever* imply that the child is bad—only the *language* is bad. If he is convinced that he is bad, he feels hopeless, but if only *language* is bad, it can be changed.

4. Do try to find out which of the reasons mentioned, or any other, motivates the child. The reason reveals the treatment.

If limited vocabulary is the problem, the parent can suggest a better word to use, adding, "But of course these are words we use only at home." Generally, the *correct* terminology is the better terminology.

If he is out for adventure—adventure in manipulating human reactions—don't make it fun for him by reacting the way he wants. A simple "That is not a nice word to use" frequently takes all the adventure out of the situation. But children *need* adventure, so, on the positive side, find suitable word games and adventure *with* him.

If imitation is the problem and the model cannot be corrected, begin developing a personal standard of behavior by suggesting that even very nice people (like "Uncle Joe") have different ideas about words. We don't use those words. Avoid implying that "Uncle Joe" is bad—he just has different ideas.

If the bad language is a *reaction to frustration,* it must be dealt with like other emotional reactions, such as slamming doors or striking out.

The first step is to help overcome the frustrating situation. Help the child develop skills that will enable him to do what he wants to do, whether it be the toddler pulling a wagon which gets stuck behind a table leg, or a child building a model airplane.

A second step, extending over a longer period of time, is to develop "frustration tolerance"—the point at which constructive effort to solve a problem breaks down and destructive behavior takes over. A child can be taught to continue constructive effort in the face of difficulties for a longer time by encouraging his effort, by offering help with the most difficult parts, and by complimenting emotional control (rather than commenting only when control breaks down). •

• MANY modern parents—and some teachers—feel that youngsters should not be forced or frustrated. We don't know what world they're preparing their kids to live in, but it surely can't be the one we're up against.—From *Changing Times.*

• THERE is nothing wrong with the younger generation that the older generation didn't outgrow.—From *Information.*

1959

Do You Wait until the Telephone Rings?

Meeting Specific Pressure Movements for Curriculum Change

PAUL M. MITCHUM

In The High School Principal and Staff Plan for Program Improvement

IT is becoming increasingly difficult for high-school teachers and principals to avoid consideration of curriculum change. If they are not stimulated by their own awareness of inadequacies in their present program to look at the possibility of curriculum improvement, they will be challenged by popular journals, professional conferences, graduate-school attendance, and various vocational groups to "do something for the gifted," train more scientists, encourage more of the capable students to prepare for college, increase economic understanding, improve performance in communication skills, persuade more students to take mathematics, or establish a core curriculum.

These pressures by no means encompass all the demands bearing down on secondary-school staffs, but are illustrative of forces both within and outside the profession which tend to question or disturb present-day programs.

Fortunate indeed—in times like these—is any school staff which can show that it is conducting a continuing and comprehensive study of its own offerings and that it *is* making desirable changes in light of new information and new conditions. Such a school staff does not wait until a local community member telephones the principal to ask what the high school is doing for the gifted or why more students are not taking science.

Paul M. Mitchum is Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Wilmington, Delaware. Reported from The High School Principal and Staff Plan for Program Improvement, *a booklet in the Secondary School Administration Series, edited by David V. Austin, and published by Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York City,* 1958 ($1.25). *Chapter* 7, 66–86.

The central advantage of a faculty's continuous study of its curriculum program is the opportunity it provides to achieve balance in outlook and emphasis. If a faculty deals only with pressures as they arise, first one aspect of program and then another receive disproportionate attention, to the neglect of the program as a whole. For example, consider the one for doing more about gifted students. Here is a pressure which may be employed by a principal to help the faculty look at questions pertaining to a program for *all* pupils. Grouping of the gifted opens the possibility of grouping for other

pupils. Does the staff consider extensive grouping a desirable arrangement for all pupils? Should grouping pertain to all phases of a program or to just certain subject areas? Acceleration and/or enrichment may pose questions also. Should the faculty try combinations of acceleration, enrichment, and grouping?

In seeking answers to such questions as these, a principal not only will want to help his teachers consider research findings but will also want to call their attention to philosophical implications relating to the research and to his school's general purposes and objectives. It should be considered, for example, that it is possible that not all the gifted will go on to college and the problem here is not just to guide highly capable pupils into a decision for college but to decide what kind of education the high school should provide for such pupils. Is it sufficient to give them college preparatory work or a general course, or is there a better terminal program which ought to be provided?

LOOKING AT A GIFT HORSE

In spite of seasoned and careful curriculum study, as has been suggested in touching on this one problem, a faculty will occasionally be confronted with sincere, interested, and willing community citizens who want to furnish free materials, speakers, courses of study, and evaluation for the favored cause of a club, association, or foundation. It is sometimes difficult for the prospective donor of materials and services to understand a principal's reluctance to accept a generous offer of assistance, especially if local businessmen have agreed in advance to finance the venture.

There will be numerous occasions, of course, when the principal and faculty welcome materials and services which fit into the school's on-going program and are consistent with the school's objectives. Actually, school programs have been enriched by the production of films and other classroom aids by industrial firms and other business organizations. Films with production costs and techniques far beyond reach of most school systems have been made available to schools in many cases at no more expense than the transportation charge.

The writer recently was privileged to sit in a small preview audience which was considering the purchase for many thousands of dollars of a film series which had been very successful on television. A few school persons were guests of a great industrial firm and the public relations officials of this firm wanted only to know that the film series had educational value and practical usefulness before they asked their company to invest money in the series and to furnish the films to the schools without cost. True, the business firm had a selfish purpose, frankly stated, in providing the films for school use.

This purpose, which was to encourage more students to become interested in science as a career choice, was not inconsistent with school purposes. The principal is justified in being cautious in regard to certain types of high pressure programs offered. But here the vast resources of a great business concern were made available to implement the joint educational objectives of business and school personnel. Such examples of partnership between school personnel and community members are happy circumstances of school-community cooperation.

PRESSURES FROM WITHIN

Not all the pressures to change, add to, or take from the curriculum come from without the schools. Like other human activities, school teaching has its trends and its movements. Teachers who have presided at their chalkboards for 25 years or more may suspect that teaching has its cycles, too. Be that as it may, as a new curriculum movement is started, some school staffs will reject it without critical examination. Later, as the movement becomes a definite trend, some school staffs will adopt it without critical examination. Neither procedure is advisable. Changes in program or structure should make sense in terms of the local situation, especially to the people involved. And any decided change in curriculum structure or content should develop from a need which is evident and understood by both the school staff and the community.

Such a proposal as the core curriculum may be used as an example here. It might be rejected without a hearing if presented without sufficient background information and study. And, even if it is clear that teachers and parents would like to see a curriculum program improved, a comprehensive plan like the core curriculum is not necessarily the answer. Before any such plan is considered, a school staff may want to work first on improving teaching methods within an existing framework of classes. When it is clear that the staff is ready to move into definite changes in the basic structure of classes, it may be advisable to begin by grouping together subject teachers who have the same pupils so that they may share a common planning or conference period. In such a plan it is assumed that the pupils remain in the same basic block or group throughout the school day, or at least in major subjects. Scheduling together teachers who have the same pupils but in different subjects may be done on a very small scale, with a minimum of two teachers and one pupil group, or it may be extensive, involving the whole school.

When it has been adopted and in full use, the core program itself has to be flexible and subject to change from its original form and content or it will become just another department with its vested interests and its traditions. To the

extent that core program developments are made available to all and all are included in the planning, many difficulties will be avoided or easily solved. Core teachers themselves, however, need more than just the support and encouragement of other staff members. As old patterns of action are discarded, new patterns have to be developed. Resources which to some degree provide help in choice of content and which to a great extent provide help in techniques must be made available to core teachers, through an intensive and continuous in-service training plan, if the program is to succeed.

KEEP PARENTS INFORMED

What has been said about participation of parents and other community members in curriculum studies is doubly true for such marked departures from conventional patterns as the core curriculum. It is quite likely that a core program will have features and characteristics which were unknown in the school experience of parents and which, therefore, are confusing to them, to say the least. When pupils are asked what subjects they are studying and they reply, "Core" or that they don't have subjects, any unkind critic lurking in the shadows may come forth to do battle.

For that matter, any friend of the school has a right to know and understand the school's purposes and the school's program. A friendly P.T.A. member once said, "Look, I'm for the school and the teachers and what we're trying to accomplish, and when I'm here in the building I think I understand. My trouble is that when one of my neighbors criticizes the school's program, I don't know how to answer him."

This feeling is perhaps shared by many friends of schools who have not been given sufficient experience in group thinking and planning to become articulate about what they vaguely believe and support. Herein lies one of the greatest challenges to school staffs: to provide the school's friends with the information and understandings which they need to defend the schools against unfair criticism. Unless interested parents are included at certain points in the planning and evaluating experiences of a school staff when curriculum changes are being developed, misunderstanding and even opposition are likely to be the result.

It may well be asked here: To what extent *should* a principal and his staff be influenced by specific pressure movements for curriculum change? Only insofar as plans fit into the unique needs of the particular school. Local innovations growing out of the teachers' own experiences are far better than the copying of imported plans. Comprehensive changes should be made carefully and with adequate preparation. The wise faculty carries on a continuous curriculum study. •

1959

What Is the Current Picture?

Mathematics and Science Programs

In NEA Research Bulletin

THE current NEA Research Division report reveals that despite shortages of teaching facilities, about 460,000 high-school graduates in 1957 had had at least three years of mathematics and that about 485,000, at least three years of science.

The study shows that secondary-school programs in mathematics and science involve significant numbers of all students and graduate well-prepared "majors" in these fields. But the study also shows that school people have no reason to be content. There are grievous deficiencies in equipment and apparatus; well-prepared new teachers are hard to find; and still more curriculum development is in order.

Junior-high schools lead other types of secondary-school organization in mathematics enrolments—almost 97 percent of all students. This impact of heavy seventh-grade and eighth-grade enrolment carries over into junior-senior high schools and shows most markedly in the large schools of this type which so enrol more than 7 out of 10 of all students.

Science enrolments lag behind mathematics enrolments in the junior-high schools. Some 30 percent fewer junior-high school students take science than take mathematics.

Large high schools (1000 or more students) edge out small (under 300 students) and medium-sized schools (300-999 students) of this type with over 57 percent enrolled in mathematics courses. Differences among the three sizes of these schools, however, are slight. In science, also, senior-high-school size makes only a slight difference in the proportions.

Reported from NEA Research Bulletin, *XXXVI* (*October* 1958), 67–73.

For *all* secondary schools, 66.2 percent of the students—some 6,235,000—were enrolled in mathematics; about 5,575,000, or 59.2 percent, in science.

A total of 14.4 percent of the 1957 high-school graduates had completed four or more years of mathematics within the four years of high school, and 14.2 percent had taken four or more years of science within the same period. Probably many had taken four or more years of both subjects, but the extent of overlap is unknown.

Looked at in total numbers, conservative estimates would go like this: In 1957 over 1¼ million were graduated from all public high schools. Of these, about 175,000 had taken four or more years of mathematics and an equal group (to some, but an unknown,

extent the same group) had taken four or more years of science. About 460,000 of these graduates had at least three years of mathematics, and about 480,000 of them at least three years of science.

School size is a factor in intensiveness of training in mathematics and science. The report's figures indicate that the larger high schools are offering their students opportunities for extra academic miles and that students are taking advantage of them. And since the large school has both the greatest number of elective offerings and the highest proportion of graduates with greatest involvement in mathematics and science courses, it is obvious that so-called soft courses are not pulling students away from the hard subjects!

The study has gathered some interesting facts about the teachers of mathematics and science—specifically about preparation and turnover. Here again size of school is a factor, the larger schools having the higher level of preparation and the lower rate of turnover. In preparation, science teachers still "outrank" mathematics teachers, but not greatly. Principals tend to see the science teachers as somewhat different from the mathematics teachers. As a whole, the principals stipulate "increased and more up-to-date knowledge of the field" as the prime need of science teachers. But for the mathematics teachers they say "greater skill in instructional methods." Principals of *large* schools, however, place "increased and more up-to-date knowledge" overwhelmingly first for mathematics, too. Moreover, an even greater proportion feel that this is a need on the part of science teachers. The "new" in mathematics does not seem to be so apparent as the "new" in science.

The current report indicates that mathematics and science curriculum revision is definitely a pre-Sputnik phenomenon. Over half of all secondary schools have completed such projects within the past two years—43 percent in mathematics, 37 percent in science, and 28 percent in both. Many others have such programs now in the works. Large high schools lead in programs completed in both fields and the small junior-high schools have made the slowest progress.

Where emphasis has been put on only one subject, junior-high schools have tended to stress science, while high schools have hit hardest at mathematics. Possibly this represents a trend in the whole secondary-school curriculum: providing an earlier start in science and stretching the range in mathematics.

Out of the curriculum activities have come new courses. The small-school trend is to add physics and chemistry, and solid geometry and trigonometry. Large schools list electronics, nuclear physics, college chemistry, college algebra, and calculus, and stress accelerated courses for the gifted. And, particularly in the case of large schools, "courses planned" indicate a great-

er awareness of the technical and professional needs of today.

Are the nation's mathematics classrooms and science laboratories equipped for a modern program of instruction? The answer is, "No, not even in terms of basic facilities." Generally, large schools are more likely to approach the needs in equipment. Concern for safety also lags. In almost half of the schools all chemistry labs lack fume hoods and in more than one-third safety warnings are conspicuously absent. Again, school size is related to adequacy of equipment. Large schools come closest to meeting standards; small schools are farthest behind.

The study sought to learn what was being spent toward providing instruction in science. Secondary schools are estimated to have spent close to $30 million in their last fiscal year for equipment, apparatus, and supplies. On an average, small schools spent $650, medium schools $1600, and large schools $4000. And about 70 percent of this was for new equipment.

What program limitations do the principals of these schools see? All schools report one or more serious limitations in their programs of both mathematics and science. In mathematics, shortage of models and apparatus is mentioned most often, with student reactions involved in the next two items—not enough students want to take mathematics courses, and when they do they lack ability. Inadequate counseling and guidance services are also mentioned in this context. Lack of classroom space is another major grievance—so 3 in 10 schools report.

On the whole, it may be said that public secondary schools are doing a far more comprehensive job in mathematics and science instruction than current discussions have assumed. Percentages of students enrolled in both fields are high and percentages of graduates with heavy credits in mathematics and in science also are high. Two questions are pertinent: What are the manpower needs? What are the college opportunities?

Curriculum revision and provision of mathematics and new science courses increase. There are many evidences that revision means modernization. But facilities for modern instruction are inadequate. Money is needed. And opportunity for students is not equal when the school size is so closely related to scope and adequacy of programs.

The large comprehensive high school is the hero. Its many courses do not seduce bright youngsters. Rather, more of them are more likely to take the "tough subjects," *mathematics* and *science*. •

A SCIENTIST says it is the lower part of the face, not the eyes, that gives away one's thoughts. Especially when one opens the lower part of the face.—*Phil Mann.*

Cultivate the Child Not His Gifts

Acceptance and Performance among Elementary-School Children

META F. WILLIAMS

In Educational Research Bulletin

IT is generally conceded that wasteful numbers of intellectually gifted children in public elementary schools do not perform to capacity in academic and social areas. Over the years, corrective measures such as acceleration, enrichment, and segregation have been tried and found wanting. Nevertheless, evidence has been accumulating to the effect that curricular changes can render the gifted child more accepting of, and more acceptable to, his classmates.

Will acceptance, in turn, significantly influence performance? A study, summarized here, was undertaken by the writer to determine the answer to this question.

As the initial step, three elementary schools of suburban Connecticut furnished a sample of 117 children whose intelligence quotient was 130 or more as derived from the California Tests of Mental Maturity. These children, deemed "gifted" for purposes of the experiment, were then rated for academic performance by other well-known tests. Then, to establish extent of acceptance, sociometric data were gathered by application of the Classroom Social Distance Scale, which allows each child to register on a five-point scale his reaction to every other child in the classroom. With certain adjustments devised by the writer to accommodate children in kindergarten and the earlier grades, the scale was administered to 888 children, a total comprising the 117 gifted children and a random sample of their classmates. After the sociometric results were completed, intensive statistical study was undertaken to analyze the academic and social performance of these children.

Meta F. Williams is a member of the faculty at the University of Bridgeport, Conn. *Reported from* Educational Research Bulletin, *XXXVII* (*November* 12, 1958), 216–20, 224.

STUDY OF THE TWELVE GIFTED

Numerical analysis of the data revealed that more than four out of five children high in total acceptance were achieving within or beyond expectancy, whereas more than three out of five children low in acceptance were achieving below expectancy. As a test of the findings, case studies then were made of 12 children of the gifted sample, six of them highly accepted and six of them highly rejected. Techniques utilized, in addition to ap-

plication of the scales previously mentioned, included the sociometric interview, the anecdotal record of classroom observations, the school-record digest, open-end questions, and the Van Pit Series-Wishes. These results were then subjected to analysis.

The Van Pit Series-Wishes data indicated need fulfillment among the intensively studied six gifted children highly accepted by classmates and the six gifted children rejected by classmates. The low acceptees showed greatest fulfillment in only one category, the need for "economic security," which was met by five children of this group. The need for "love and affection" remained unfulfilled in all of the low acceptees; and in five cases each, the needs for "freedom from fear," "freedom from excessive guilt," and "selfrespect" were not met.

Among high acceptees, the need for "selfunderstanding" was fulfilled in every case. Of this group, five children had their needs for "freedom from fear" and "love and affection" met. This data indicated, then, a close relationship between acceptance and satisfaction of needs.

The case-study findings paralleled and supported those of the general investigation and, in addition, indicated the effects of the school setting and curriculum on degree of acceptance and, therefore, on quality of performance. It is the conclusion of the writer that, if schools make a greater effort to fulfill the needs of gifted children by strengthening acceptance, in all probability the performance of such children will thereby be improved.

STUDY SUMMARIZED

Summarizing this study, it may be pointed out that there appeared to be: (1) no appreciable differences in intelligence between high and low acceptees; (2) an appreciable difference in both test-measured and school-evaluated social performance, favoring the high acceptees; (3) evidence of greater acceptance extended to the group by the high acceptees; (4) no difference between high and low acceptees with regard to the characteristics valued in friends; (5) greater permissiveness and wider variety of channels for learning in the experiences of the high acceptees; (6) more consistent satisfaction with interpersonal relationships among the high, and more consistent dissatisfaction among the low acceptees; (7) considerable differences between high and low acceptees in the fulfillment of their emotional needs, as indicated by the Van Pit Series-Wishes.

Significantly, none of the individually studied gifted children, accepted by classmates or not, appeared concerned with himself as a "big brain." None sought special attention on the grounds of unusual intellectual capacity. None was anxious for more school work or for special teachers or for a rarified climate of any kind. The

profuse data of the individual studies also indicated that all of the examined children, accepted by classmates or not, were willing, within emotional limitations, to attempt the work prescribed by the school.

LOOK TO THE CHILD FIRST

Moreover, all were powerfully concerned with themselves as children, not as special children. They indicated the normal strong desire of children to use their bodies successfully, to build themselves physically into greater beauty and strength. They all wanted to love and be loved. And they wanted, above all, to consider themselves worthy members of a worthy peer group and to communicate this desire to their classmates. It seems reasonable to conclude, then, that those engaged in seeking better opportunities for our gifted children might with profit look to the child first, and only subsequently to his gifts.

If further investigation can demonstrate that the performance of gifted children is generally affected by considerations of group acceptance, as seemed true of the children in the study reported here, then the school must reexamine those practices which are inimical to acceptance and change them. Such change, aimed at cultivating the child rather than his particular gifts, might well prove less expensive and more effective than the practices now relied on to help intellectually endowed children attain performance commensurate with their special capacities and abilities. •

The Gifted and Their Parents

• Gifted children, especially those that are proficient readers, can save their parents money. They don't need an allowance for comic books. They can finish one before the druggist tells them to put it down.—*Maurice Seiter.*

• A parent is a person who believes the words "progeny" and "prodigy" are interchangeable.—Marcelene Cox in *Ladies Home Journal.*

• Alfred had arrived at college age, but showed no inclination to pursue his studies or in any way adapt himself to his father's business. When his father complained to a friend about the boy, the friend consoled him and suggested that maybe the youth hadn't found himself yet. "Isn't he gifted in any way?" he asked. "Gifted!" replied the father. "I should say he is. He hasn't got a thing that wasn't given to him."—From *Arkansas Baptist.*

Do You "Listen for the Whole"?

The Dangers of Evaluative Labeling

WILLIAM P. ANGERS

In The Vocational Guidance Quarterly

DURING the past 25 years, describing individuals in terms of personality as well as achievement has become increasingly important in schools, community agencies, and in employment. While this "evaluative labeling" has proved most helpful in many ways, it has, on the other hand, too often contributed seriously to the continued maladjustment of individuals in later life. Evaluative labeling, useful as it may be in reaching quick judgments, inherently leads to error because it confines itself to a partial description of only a segment of the individual's life-style.

According to Alfred Adler, "It is not an easy task to understand a human being . . . We must listen always for the whole." And failure to "listen for the whole" is where the error creeps in.

Take, for example, the case of a boy who had applied for a college scholarship for premedical studies. His academic record was good—especially in science. This boy's high-school principal supplied the scholarship examining board with the highest of scholastic recommendations. *But* the principal's report also stated briefly and without explanation that the boy's character was "unreliable."

This principal's judgement was based on unfulfilled promises the boy had made during his senior year. On several occasions the student had promised to buy some sheet music and instrument parts needed by the school band from a store that was near his home. Presumably the errand was one which could easily be accomplished by him. Although this boy promised on different occasions to make these purchases, he never did. Thus, the principal's label of "unreliable."

Had the principal "listened for the whole," he would have learned that conditions in the boy's home made even his regular attendance at school extremely difficult. And he spent so much energy in covering up his home situation that when it came to explaining his failure to run the promised errands, he was at a loss for words.

The evaluative labeling of "unreliable" cost the boy his scholarship and it also further confirmed his mistaken life-style. Although the young man entered and worked his way through college, eventually

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becoming a medical student, he carried a deep resentment for the principal and this resentment continued seriously to affect his responses in other situations. Before he could begin to change his life-style, this boy had to be helped by counselors to recognize the labeling for what it was and to be shown how he was using it as a crutch. True, the evaluative labeling had made him all the more determined to accomplish his career goal, but he also had used it as an alibi to confirm an early life-style.

EARLY LABELING STICKS

The practice of evaluative labeling begins to affect a person's life from the first day he enters school. For instance, the primary-grade teacher is forced to describe a child's behavior in terms of satisfactory or unsatisfactory. Some teachers realize the importance of understanding why certain children choose to be disturbing in class—to merit an unsatisfactory label. A child evaluated as "a nuisance" in school may be well-behaved at home or in other social groups, a fact unknown to the teacher. And sometimes such a label as "nuisance" is picked up by the next teacher and then passed on and on—despite the fact the child may have changed or despite the fact that the labeling in the first place was based on faulty and/or incomplete evidence.

Such a story was brought out when a veteran was seeking vocational counseling. He had applied for special training for which he was qualified. He had the necessary educational background, his grades were above average, and his physical health was good. The results of an interview with a psychologist and the data supplied by a series of tests were satisfactory. It seemed as though he might be recommended for the special training. But the evaluative labeling on the reports furnished by his high school described him as "emotionally unstable and undependable." Further questioning by the counselor revealed that the boy had been involved in several riotous fights during his first two years of high school. Witnesses always claimed that he had started the trouble because he was the first to strike with his fists. But what they had failed to notice were the preceding teasing remarks calculated to arouse the boy's anger.

At that time he and his family had recently moved into the town. It was a town in which new people were considered "strangers" and "intruders." The boy was treated as an outcast by his classmates. He did possess speech idiosyncracies and other characteristics different from those acceptable in the new community. He was also ignorant of the local customs and affairs. Or, as expressed in Adlerian terms, he suffered from social inferiority which he keenly felt and gave vent to these feelings of inferiority by fighting.

But after the first two years this boy had adjusted his life-style to

his surroundings and his schoolmates began to appreciate his good qualities. The family, too, was eventually received into the social community.

The school authorities, however, failed to notice the metamorphosis—at least they did not note it on his record. Nor had they earlier investigated the underlying causes for the boy's pugnacious behavior during the first two years. On the record he remained for his whole high-school career a boy with a "hasty disposition" and "emotionally undependable personality." Several years later this evaluative labeling was still influencing his life detrimentally. He was not given the special training in the Armed Forces and thus missed an opportunity to prepare for a civilian career for which he seemed to be well suited.

Although this case points out the importance of looking for the cause, it also exemplifies a common failing in evaluative labeling. It behooves everyone who is involved with evaluative labeling to think carefully about Erwin Wexberg's words: "Individual psychology . . . never attempts to interpret a single isolated occurrence; we can interpret conduct and experience only in their contextual relations to the total personality."

It must certainly be emphasized that school authorities are not the only ones guilty of superficial evaluative labeling. Community organizations, former employers given as references by job applicants—and even *each* of us—might fall into the trap of passing along outdated and often unfair information. And on the other side of the fence is the employer, school authority, or agency which accepts and makes decisions on the basis of data secured from hasty labeling.

In this day of pressured living, rare indeed is the person who looks beyond the words of an unfavorable report—who "listens for the whole." And it is an unusual person who will trust his own impression of an applicant and disregard the damaging words.

But the lesson to be learned from such situations as have been examined here is clear. Since most instances of evaluative labeling are based on a cursory examination of only a part of a person's total personality, those of us who are called on to evaluate others must be wary of committing superficial labeling to paper. Whenever personal data is requested of us, we should carefully choose the words of our comments, making certain that our opinions are fair and are based on sufficient information of as much of a person's total life-style as we can possibly ascertain. •

THE faults of others are like headlights on an automobile. They only seem more glaring than our own.—From *Ozarkian Philosophy.*

When Is the Best Time to Change?

The Transition from Manuscript to Cursive Writing

FRANK N. FREEMAN

In Elementary English

THE practice of beginning instruction in handwriting with manuscript and changing to cursive before the end of the primary period has become almost universal in the schools of the United States. The exact time of making the transition, however, still varies and no uniform practice exists. It is desirable, therefore, to find out what the trend on this matter is, and whether the factors can be discovered which indicate what is the best time to make the change.

The variation in practice on this point, as well as a cursory examination of the reasons assigned for changing at one time or another, indicate the question is a complex one. However, it is important to review all of the relevant facts and considerations and to make the best judgment we can on the best time for making the change.

In order to supplement previous knowledge on this matter, and to gather fresh data, the writer recently sent a questionnaire to 1294 school systems in all the states of the Union. This questionnaire was sent to cities of 10,000 population and over, with no selection except by size. The number of replies returned was 861, or 66 percent, which gives a sufficient basis for conclusions concerning current practice. The main purpose of the questionnaire was twofold: first, to ascertain at what time the change is most commonly made; and second, to discover, so far as possible, the reasons for the choice.

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From the replies it was learned that current practice is almost universally in favor of making the change in either Grade 2 or Grade 3, but that the trend is strongly in favor of Grade 3. We found that the change is made in Grade 2 or below in 355 cities and in Grade 3 or above in 570 cities. It will help us in coming to a decision on the relative merits of these two times if we can find out why this diversity exists. This was the second purpose of the study.

Among the questions asked was whether the choice of the grade in which the change is made is based on opinions of authorities. This question is interpreted somewhat broadly to include general authorities and research, committees of teachers, the directives of the

system, etc. In summary, on the references to "opinions of authorities," those who cite tradition and practice, teacher committees, etc., are evenly divided between Grade 2 and Grade 3, while those who cite general authorities and research, or area policy and surveys, prefer Grade 3 by two or three to one. Among those who cite handwriting systems as their authority, the adherents of one system prefer Grade 2, while the adherents of other systems prefer Grade 3. In general, the view of the majority who base their choice on the opinions of authorities favors the change in Grade 3.

The opinions of authorities do give us a greater preponderance in favor of Grade 3, but still there is considerable diversity among them. There is room for doubt as to which authorities are right. If we have to choose among authorities without going behind them we would probably side with the greater number, but this is not an entirely satisfactory basis of choice. It is desirable to go beyond a census of votes and probe into the reasons underlying them. This was done in another section of our inquiry with very interesting replies.

THEORETICAL CONSIDERATIONS

These responses on theoretical considerations also favored Grade 3 as a time to change from manuscript to cursive. In 372 cases, the votes are in favor of Grade 3, while less than half as many, or 174, favor Grade 2. And these opinions are based on observations of children, and so should be carefully weighed and given a great deal of credence.

Let us now endeavor to interpret these latter findings. It is reasonable to conclude that the difference in practice and opinion on the question of when the change from manuscript to cursive should be made is due partly to two underlying facts. The first is that some factors actually favor the change in Grade 2 and others the change in Grade 3, so that those who believe the change should be made in either grade can cite good substantial reasons for their view. For example, in favor of Grade 2 there were cited, in various forms, such considerations as "the heavy curriculum load in Grade 3," "the advantage of having the change made by the teacher who teaches manuscript," "the prevention of children making the change on their own," and the "prevention of the manuscript habit becoming too fixed." To these may be added the eagerness of some children and parents to write in cursive.

On the other hand, there were cited certain, even more important, factors which seem to favor Grade 3, such as the "desirability of mastering manuscript before making the change," "the attainment of sufficient maturity and muscular coordination before tackling cursive," "the advantage of retaining manuscript as a ready instrument of written expression through Grade 3," "the postponement of the change

until the majority seem ready," the "making of the change when it is easier," and the "postponement of the date to avoid interference with the development of reading." A large majority of the respondents think that these factors favor the change in Grade 3.

READINESS FOR CHANGE

On one point the opinion seems evenly divided; this is the time at which readiness to change may be recognized. It may be that this even division is due partly to the fact that some children are actually ready before others. This is the second of the underlying factors mentioned above. The significance of this factor is that any method that is used should be flexible enough to permit some children to begin to change earlier than others, or for some to postpone the change after the majority have started it.

A few hints may be given as to how we may judge whether a child is ready to change from manuscript to cursive. First, he should have a fairly good mastery of manuscript before changing to the more complex form of writing, as indicated by a good recognition of the forms of the letters and a satisfactory control of the movements of writing them. This will warrant us to expect that he will be able to form a clear idea of the form of the letters and the words in cursive form, and that he will be able to acquire the continuous and more complex movements involved in forming the letters and connected strokes of cursive. These, along with the child's desire to change and ability to apply himself, will indicate that he is ready.

This survey of practice and opinion on the question of the best time to change from manuscript to cursive leads to the following findings and conclusions.

1. The prevailing practice in the cities of the U.S. of 10,000 and above is to make the change in Grade 3. The number in which the change is made in Grade 3, of those who reported, is 570 as against 355 which make it in Grade 2.

2. There is considerable variation in practice among the states, which may be attributed largely to a difference in practice among the systems used.

3. The citation of authorities for the time of making the change indicates a good deal of diversity, though the majority favor the change in Grade 3.

4. The theoretical considerations cited as reasons for making the change in one or the other grade strongly favor Grade 3 by a vote of 372 against 174.

5. Pending more objective scientific investigation, which would be difficult, the weight of evidence seems to be in favor of changing from manuscript to cursive in Grade 3.

6. Any program should probably be flexible enough to allow for some individual variation in making the change.

They Need a Wide Variety

Planning Science Experiences for Children

MARY SHECKLES

In Building Children's Science Concepts

FOR children in school there are many types of experience, such as reading, creative writing, creative art work, viewing pictures, listening to recordings, listening to one's peers or to authorities in a given area of study. All of these types of experience, especially when combined, contribute to the growth of children's concepts. But here we shall speak of experiences in the area of science and emphasize observation and manipulation or experimentation.

In planning science experiences, you may design them to achieve different purposes. You may, for example, plan certain of these to influence a specific response. Perhaps you find from observing and listening to your children during a thunderstorm that several have misconceptions about lightning and thunder. You may begin by helping your children to recall some of their experiences with static electricity. These might include rubbing a cat's back in the dark and seeing sparks, and receiving a shock when taking off wool, nylon, or dacron clothing. Reading and discussion may then be needed to help the children to see the relation between the sparks seen and the crackling heard when taking off a nylon or dacron sweater and the lightning seen and the thunder heard during an electrical storm. After the cause of lightning and thunder is pretty well understood, the group may wish to discuss safe places to be during a thunderstorm. They may also want to learn how buildings of different kinds are protected from lightning.

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A study of thunder, lightning, and other forms of static electricity should help your boys and girls to add new concepts to their present concepts of time, space, change, and energy. It should also help them to reorganize some of their existing concepts in these areas. All will not take the same things from this study. But for some members of the group there should be changes in behavior.

Science experiences also may be planned to help children work out a solution to one of their own prob-

lems. For example, you may have a first-grade group who wish to have a room flag which they can put up each morning. Learning to use a single pulley would help. Or suppose you have an older group of boys who are having trouble with their baseball diamond. They are assigned to the lower level of the playground and the water which flowed from the upper level during a recent rain has cut a miniature valley through their ball field. Their problem is to stop such erosion. This practical problem gives you an opportunity to help the group learn what causes erosion and how it can be checked. Their observations may help them to see a relationship between erosion and soil that has no plant cover. They may also experiment to find possible ways of checking or preventing erosion. This study of erosion and its correction will contribute much to children's concepts of the interrelationships between the physical forces of wind and water and soil and between all of these and people.

Such experiences mentioned here are only a few of the many possibilities for using science in working through vital problems of living. But suppose problems do not arise which call for experiences in an area of science you would like your children to explore. What then?

One of your responsibilities as a teacher is to open up new areas for children to explore. You will want to plan science experiences which will allow individuals or groups of children to learn new and interesting things about the world they live in. As one example, there is the great area of environment. Learning here may begin when the children, not satisfied with observing an animal in its natural habitat, wish to keep it at school or at home. A child needs to learn to ask himself such questions as: "Can I provide a place indoors where there will be the correct amount of light, heat, food, and water?" "Can I secure a cage that will protect it from its enemies and prevent its escape?" "Can I provide it with enough space for exercise?" "Will I take the responsibility of caring for the animal's needs?" When these questions can be answered satisfactorily, it is time to consider what changes might be caused by the removal of this animal from its environment. When thinking about what the removal of living things does to the environment, children need to become conscious that different procedures need to be followed when any kind of living thing is plentiful and when it is scarce.

And this, when well planned, may lead into the broader problems of environment. Much questioning, discussing, reading, and exploring of the environment will be needed if you are to help your children understand the significance for them of the feeling expressed by the statement, "I am the caretaker of my environment."

Children need a wide variety of

experiences. If they are to be resourceful, they must have an opportunity to explore many different kinds of materials and phenomenons. Some of this exploration may follow suggestions made by the children themselves. You will wish to encourage individual initiative whenever it is practical.

DIFFERENT INTERESTS

Are you concerned because your children are not all interested in the same experiences? Try not to be. Suppose all of the children participated in the same experience. They would not all take the same things from it. What each individual takes from a given experience is determined by many factors. Three of these factors are previous experiences, present needs, and current interests. This means that not all children need the same experiences at the same time. On the other hand, do not hesitate to provide some experiences for an entire class. It is likely that each will profit in his own way from experiences that are well planned and carried out.

Teachers often ask, "How do I know when and in what detail to answer a child's question?" There is no absolute answer to this question. Knowing the background of your children and the resources available are two things that will help you to know *when* to answer a child's question. But the amount of detail to give in an answer is hard to determine. Some teachers have found it helpful to give a little information and then pause. If the children follow this and can offer some ideas toward further exploration of the question, then there may be continued discussion. If the children are satisfied, they may do nothing to gain further information at that time. They may return to the topic at a later time, however, and be ready to carry the discussion much further.

Teachers often ask, "How can I tell whether I have planned a good science program for my boys and girls?" One check which seems useful is to ask the question, "Have I planned experiences which will help children to broaden their concepts of space, time, change, adaptation, variety, interrelationships, and energy?" Another and possibly more valuable check is the continuous evaluation of growth in desirable behavior of your group and of its individual members. You certainly will wish to ask yourself, "Do the children search for explanations of natural events?" That is, are they not only curious but interested in finding explanations of the things they observe? But behavior growth may also be checked in the answers to such questions as: Do the children show an awareness of the needs of living things both in their planning and in their care of living things in the classroom? Do they show growth in such practical matters as in labeling the source of their information? Do they repeat experiments to check whether or not they get the same results each time? •

With Education in Washington

THE EDUCATION DIGEST WASHINGTON BUREAU

The 86th Congress.—The Democrats have strong majorities in both houses of Congress and hopes are higher than in many years that the time has come for a sweeping federal bill for school support, for construction, and possibly for teachers' salaries as well.

Realistically, these hopes are being tempered because of a variety of obstacles, chief of which is the Administration's economy drive and quest for as nearly balanced a budget as possible. Best guesses in Washington were that President Eisenhower's education program would call for some kind of federal loans for school construction rather than the grants to the states which have been proposed and defeated in a variety of forms by several Congresses during the past decade.

This anticipated conflict is overshadowed by the fact that the Democratic majority is short of the two-thirds required to override a Presidential veto. As usual, the vote on a federal-aid proposal need not follow party lines; southern members may line up with Republican conservatives while northern Democrats should find support among liberal Republicans.

The legislative outlook will become clearer this month after the President presents his message on the State of the Union and unveils his budget.

Two items of unfinished business are expected to receive attention in Congress. One concerns the scholarships dropped out of the 1958 National Defense Education Act. They'll be revived but debate will hinge on the method of award. Education leaders generally prefer to make all able students eligible, regardless of need. Economy-minded conservatives will call for scholarships to be restricted to needy students who have ability. A possible compromise may see scholarships for all high-ability students with a token award to some and more generous stipends for those found needy.

The other item concerns the loyalty provisions written into the National Defense Education Act. They call for the affirmation of loyalty to the United States. In the words of Sen. Karl Mundt (R-N. Dak.), eligible participants "shall be good Americans and not be people involved in Communist or any other subversive organizations." This well intentioned oath is causing a snag in the administration of some parts of the program, especially the teaching of foreign languages.

Potential teachers of rare languages are oftentimes citizens of a country other than the U. S. and are not necessarily ready to become naturalized. The present oath makes such teachers ineligible and Congressional action appears to be necessary to provide relief. As the law now stands, some good Americans can't benefit from the teaching of competent foreigners.

Federal Schools?—More heat and little light will come with the start of the spring term in several school districts which face federal court orders to integrate their schools. As additional schools close to forestall desegregation, pressure will mount for Congress to step into the deadlock. Talk is on the increase for a plan to establish, on a temporary basis, federally run and financed schools.

It hardly needs saying that any federal action will be highly controversial, no matter whether the proposal calls for improvised classrooms on military installations, or whether it means the cutting off of federal funds in schools which are closed.

After four decades of a federally supported program of vocational education, many citizens have forgotten that the Congress has expanded and extended this specialized program of federal aid. A decision to cut off these and other federal funds, based on failure to use them because the schools are closed, would dramatically highlight long-standing federal participation, would bring charges of federal control, and would involve the legislative and executive branches of government in a critical situation which even now is jeopardizing the entire concept of free, public education.

Parents Participate.—Great interest in public schools and the welfare of education was demonstrated by an estimated 26 million Americans during American Education Week. Sponsors of the 38th annual observance reported unusually high interest.

Sponsors are the NEA, the U. S. Office of Education, American Legion, and the National Congress of Parents and Teachers. They suffered some bad moments when there was a slight delay in the President's customary proclamation of Education Week, preceded by rumors that there would be no proclamation at all because an endorsement of public schools would be interpreted as a slap at closed schools in the South. The rumor turned to naught and the President urged citizens to take still greater interest in education.

Bevis Committee.—A recurring, plausible story in Washington is to the effect that there is an organization or committee for everything. In addition, there is a would-be joke that organizations proliferate but that none ever die.

Last month the Bevis Committee died. Its official name was the President's Committee on Scientists and Engineers. It was born in April, 1956, to take an inventory of obstacles in developing top scientists and engineers; to overcome these obstacles, especially through voluntary support from nonfederal groups; to publicize the problems; to stimulate remedial action; and to disseminate constructive information.

Popularly the committee was named after its chairman, Howard

L. Bevis, president emeritus of Ohio State University. Now that it has gone out of business, there is controversy whether it should have been continued or not. This reflects a division of opinion whether the committee was supposed to solve the problems or merely to illuminate the way toward a solution.

The American Chemical Society did some digging, suggested that death had been premature, listed these committee undertakings:

One task force dealt with technicians and promoted accreditation of two-year and three-year technical schools. It worked with the American Society for Engineering Education to study technicians; helped the U. S. Office of Education to report on technical institutes, students, and graduates; it laid the groundwork for matching of technical curriculums with employers' needs of technicians.

A second task force emphasized action by local community leaders who could increase interest in science and technical education on the part of school boards. It also sought long-range improvements in teaching of science and mathematics in elementary and secondary schools. By scheduling more than 30 regional conferences, the committee sought improved career counseling and statistics on labor supply and demand for scientists and engineers.

One member of the committee charges that the end came too soon: "Clashes of personalities, budgets, goals, and philosophies of science and education, as well as growth and too much success have brought death to the committee."

The American Chemical Society points out that the committee never had an independent existence and that its budget came from funds of the National Science Foundation "not immediately needed elsewhere."

Consensus was that the job had been done well. Disagreement came over the question of whether the job had been completed.

Junior High, What Next?—Right now, the crest of the child population wave is moving through junior-high schools in those communities which have them.

After looking over a study by the U. S. Office of Education and many other pieces of relevant literature, the NEA Research Division finds that "the junior-high school has never been fully accepted, either in theory or in practice."

This finding reflects the uncertain purpose of a school which was born of overcrowded elementary schools half a century ago. There were economic reasons for the establishment of a school which relieved the pressure on high schools by teaching the ninth grade, and unloaded the elementary schools by taking over the seventh and eighth grades.

The focus now is on the junior high because it is undergoing great strains in a period of overcrowding, mounting costs, and dissatis-

faction with individual schools that do poor work.

Footnote to the News.—Relationships between newspapers and schools came in for exploration at the November meeting of the Washington Chapter of the Educational Press Association. Speaker was Ben Gilbert, city editor of the *Washington Post and Times-Herald.*

Not surprisingly, Mr. Gilbert noted that school people were eager to get favorable stories into print but were less cooperative when it came to bad news. One example of this caused the audience—primarily editors of education magazines—to sit up.

Mr. Gilbert mentioned several unfavorable comments he had heard about newspapers which reported the arrest of some New York City call girls, with special focus on one of them because she was a teacher.

"Newsworthy," was the verdict of the veteran newsman, "and therefore worth printing." Then he added: "Heaven help the teaching profession (and this country) if it is *not* news when a teacher is arrested for being a call girl."

District Reorganization.—There is a continuing trend toward consolidation and reorganization of rural school districts, as determined in a new study being compiled by the Rural Department of NEA.

There has been a decline in school districts which are "empty shells," tax units which have no students or which send them by bus to neighboring school districts. Where there had been almost 9000 in 1955 there now are only 7000.

In some places the full impact of this type of reorganization is just beginning, for there still are 22,000 one-teacher schools, compared to 31,000 in 1955.

The importance of the intermediate unit in school administration is now receiving publicity.

The name may be a bit novel, but "intermediate unit" faithfully describes the school agency which is a half-way point between the state department of education and the oftentimes inadequate small single school.

The intermediate unit is the coming thing because it is just large enough to warrant library services, audio-visual tools, and supervisors who are specialists. Some, but not all, intermediate units are counties but the size and number of counties shows great variation among the states so that the intermediate unit varies in its relationship to counties: some are less than half a county; others embrace two counties or more.

Names Make News.—Luther Evans, former Librarian of Congress, last month completed a six-year term as director general of the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization. He was succeeded by Vittorino Veronese of Italy, who defeated him by a vote of 55 to 20. •

• Educational News •

CHANGES IN SUPERINTENDENCIES:

Savannah, Ga.: **William A. Early,** superintendent since 1952, has resigned.

Davenport, Ia.: **Harold J. Williams** has announced his retirement, effective in June.

Grand Forks, N. D.: **Erich Selke,** professor emeritus of education at the University of North Dakota, has been named acting superintendent until a successor is appointed for the late **Elroy H. Schroeder.**

Nashua, N. H.: **Edmund M. Keefe,** formerly high-school principal at Nashua, is now superintendent.

Ashtabula, Ohio: **Fritz Jacobs,** formerly of Utica, Ohio, has succeeded **E. I. Gephart,** resigned.

Manchester, N. H.: **Augusta M. Nichols** has retired.

COLLEGE PRESIDENTS:

Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge: **Julius A. Stratton** has been named successor to **James R. Killian, Jr.,** who remains with the institution in an executive position. Dr. Stratton has been acting president for a year while Dr. Killian has been on leave as Special Assistant for Science and Technology to President Eisenhower.

University of Tampa, Fla.: **David M. Delco** has been inaugurated as president, succeeding **Ellwood C. Nance,** resigned.

University of Nevada, Reno: **Charles J. Armstrong,** formerly president of Pacific University, Forest Grove, Ore., has been appointed president.

Golden Gate College, San Francisco, Calif.: **Russell T. Sharpe,** formerly president of Monticello College, Alton, Ill., is now president.

TEACHER-TRAINING INSTITUTIONS:

Texas A. and M. College, College Station: **Paul Hensarling,** formerly superintendent at Aldine, Tex., has been named head of the administrative and supervisory program, department of education and psychology.

Otterbein College, Westerville, Ohio: **Fred C. Slager,** has been appointed chairman of the education department.

Stanford University, Palo Alto, Calif.: **H. T. James,** formerly with the Midwest Administration Center, Chicago, is now associate professor of education.

Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, N. Y.: New faculty member appointments include: **Mozell C. Hill, Gordon C. Lee, David G. Scanlon,** and **Floride Moore,** named professors of education; **Walter E. Singlinger,** named associate professor of education; and **James L. Kuethe, Robert B. Simpson, Franklin E. Moak,** and **Hally B. Poindexter,** named assistant professors of education.

OTHER CHANGES AND APPOINTMENTS:

Charles F. Ritch, Jr., formerly with the Connecticut State Department of Education, is now commissioner of education for New Hampshire.

Lyle W. Ashby, formerly assistant executive secretary for educational services, NEA, has been named to the newly-created office of deputy executive secretary of the NEA.

Chester M. Alter, chancellor of the University of Denver, Colo., has been elected president of the Association of Urban Universities.

George W. Jones, formerly of Alabama State College, Montgomery, has been chosen as the first full-time executive secretary of the Alabama State Teachers Association in this 75-year-old organization.

Donald A. Harrington, formerly of the University of Florida, Gainesville, has been appointed to the newly-created post of specialist in speech and hearing in the U. S. Office of Education. Also in the U. S. Office of Education, **Ralph C. M. Flynt,** director of the legislative services branch, has been appointed assistant commissioner of education.

New Mathematics

THE Carnegie Corporation of New York, in announcing grants of almost $3 million in November, revealed that the largest grant was to the University of Illinois for the development of new programs of mathematics for elementary and secondary schools.

The $590,000 grant will be used to continue the high-school project, under way for several years, and to start the elementary-school project. The new project, under the direction of David A. Page, will entail a thorough re-examination of the teaching methods and content of math courses for the first through eighth grades.

The high-school project, which has developed experimental courses for the ninth through the twelfth grades, is under the direction of Max Beberman. The new grant will permit the committee to make further refinements in the courses and to provide special courses in new method for professors of mathematics in teachers colleges.

Curriculum Proposals

A DETROIT citizens' advisory committee, which has been studying the city's school needs for 18 months, has recommended that increased attention be given to reading, writing, and mathematics in Detroit schools.

The citizens' group also urged more emphasis on science and foreign languages. The report, in addition, suggested that high-school sessions be at least six hours a day and that more homework be required.

Other proposals included an improved plan for studying the economy of the nation. The committee recommended that a semester of study in contemporary affairs be required in high school, in addition to the regularly required units in world history, American history, civics, and economics.

The committee recommended steps be taken to insure early identification of talented students and, the report said, these talented students should be given advanced work that would be continuous and enriching as they passed from grade to grade.

The curriculum proposals were part of a voluminous report on all aspects of the Detroit school system.

The committee of 270 citizens was headed by George Romney, president of American Motors Corporation.

College Enrolments

ALTHOUGH college enrolment figures climbed to an all-time high of 3,258,500 last fall, there was a drop of 13 percent in the number

of freshmen enrolled in engineering courses, according to figures recently released by the U. S. Office of Education.

The total enrolment figure, which is expected to reach 3,500,000 before the school year is over, compares to 3,068,417 enrolled last fall.

The number of engineering freshmen is estimated, on the basis of the Office of Education's survey, at 68,000, compared with 79,000 last fall.

One possible reason for the drop in freshmen engineering enrolments, according to Henry W. Armsby, the Office of Education's specialist in engineering education, could be that enrolments are up in like proportions in physics and mathematics. In that event the slide in engineering registration would not be significant because both physicists and engineers need the same basic education.

Industry-Education Meet

REPRESENTATIVES of industry and education met in Duluth, Minn., in November to develop an action program that industry and education could carry forward to improve the state's total education program.

This industry-education three-day conference, said to be the first state-wide meeting of its kind, was attended by more than 150 educators, company presidents, scientists, researchers, and professional societies' representatives.

The conference was restricted to discussion of problems in science, mathematics, and engineering education at all levels. Future conferences will be devoted to other areas.

The conference evolved into a permanent organization named the Industry-Education Board, which will operate through the Minnesota Academy of Science.

One of the projects already set up by the organization is a clearing house and information center for science and mathematics library materials, information on state and local teaching resources, instructional materials, career information and counseling, surplus industrial equipment for laboratory teaching, information on summer employment for high-school and college teachers, information on national programs, and information on films and audio-visual aids available.

Other projects now being discussed or planned include guidance help, financial help, help for teachers, and fostering various aids to teaching.

Safety Checklist

IN the wake of the third worst school fire in the nation which took the lives of 90 Chicago children and teachers in December, the National Education Association has released a 30-point checklist of safety questions dealing with fire prevention and control in schools.

The checklist, which was prepared by the NEA National Commission on Safety Education, is

available from the NEA headquarters, 1201 Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington 6, D. C.

TV Course Honored

"Continental Classroom," the college-level course in atomic-age physics being telecast nationally by NBC-TV, has been awarded a special citation by the Thomas Alva Edison Foundation in "recognition of distinguished public service in the interests of education."

The program, telecast Monday through Friday at 6:30 A.M. local time, is conducted by Harvey E. White. It is estimated that 270,000 Americans are watching the course, which the NBC network planned primarily for high-school teachers of science. More than 240 colleges and universities are offering full academic credit for the course and more than 5,000 teachers are taking it for credit. More than 27,000 other students and viewers have mailed in 50c each for a syllabus.

The Edison awards are determined by a vote of 62 national civic organizations.

Federal Help

Anderson County, Tenn., will receive a federal grant of $45,510 to help rebuild the high school at Clinton which was dynamited last fall, according to a recent announcement by Arthur S. Flemming, U. S. Secretary of Health, Education, and Welfare.

The funds will be provided under a law which authorizes grants for school construction needed because of increased enrolments resulting from federal activities. Anderson County qualified for the grant on the basis of the estimated increase between now and 1960 in the enrolment of children whose parents are employed at Oak Ridge and other federal institutions in the Clinton area.

Dates of the Month:

Jan. 25-28, National School Boards Association, San Francisco, Calif.

Jan. 26-30, Reading Institute, Temple University, Philadelphia, Pa.

Dates of the Coming Months:

Feb. 7-11, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Philadelphia, Pa.

Feb. 12-14, American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Chicago, Ill.

Feb. 14-18, American Association of School Administrators, Atlantic City, N. J.

Feb. 15-22, Brotherhood Week.

Feb. 28-Mar. 4, Department of Elementary-School Principals, NEA, Los Angeles, Calif.

Mar. 1-4, Association for Higher Education, Chicago, Ill.

Mar. 1-5, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Cincinnati, Ohio.

Mar. 9-14, National Art Education Association, New York, N. Y.

Mar. 31-April 3, National Catholic Educational Association, Atlantic City, N. J.

Mar. 31-April 4, National Science Teachers Association, Atlantic City.

April 1-4, National Council for Teachers of Mathematics, Dallas.

April 22-25, American Industrial Arts Association, Long Beach, Calif.

New Educational Materials

Patterns in Secondary School Curriculum. Tom C. Venable. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1958. Pp. xii + 236. $3.00.

This handbook-like text is not a complete or comprehensive survey of the curriculum of today's secondary schools. It is a guide or a syllabus for the student of the subject.

Each section presents, first, suitable reading material for the subject; second, an outline to provide the student a starting point for his reading and thinking; and third, questions for thought and discussion.

The material is organized into five parts: foundations of secondary-school curriculum; curriculum organization; improving the separate-subjects curriculum; curriculum trends in the separate subjects; and organizing for curriculum development.

Reading: Chaos and Cure. Sibyl Terman and Charles Child Walcutt. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1958. Pp. xii + 285. $4.75.

The authors of this book are members of the phonics school. They analyze the reading problem in schools today, discuss the way reading is taught and why it fails, and they outline a program they state will cure reading failure. They advocate an application of the phonics method as opposed to the reading readiness and word configuration program now commonly used.

At the end of the book they include a complete phonics manual.

Charles Walcutt is professor of English at Queens College, New York, and Sibyl Terman is a remedial-reading specialist.

New Directions for the American University. Frederick Mayer. Washington, D.C.: Public Affairs Press, 1958. Pp. ix + 52. $2.50.

In the five essays in this book, Dr. Mayer discusses the goals of education, the challenge of higher education, the teacher, the obstacles, and creative education. In these discussions, he emphasizes both current and future problems and possible solutions. For instance, in regards to quality in higher education, he would provide for two types of higher education—one for the gifted minority and one for the less gifted majority.

The introduction to the book was written by Aldous Huxley. Dr. Mayer is professor of philosophy at University of Redlands.

The American Two-Year College. Tyrus Hillway. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1958. Pp. xi + 276. $3.75.

Intended as a text for introductory courses dealing with junior and community colleges, this book seeks to answer the basic questions relating to this type of institution, such as: What is the nature of the two-year college? How did it start and how fast has it grown? What are its functions, present status, and areas of service? What are the major unsolved problems of the junior-college movement? What should be the place of the two-year college in our educational system?

The book also contains a section giving step-by-step procedure in establishing a community college.

The author, now at Colorado

State College, Greeley, was formerly a junior-college president.

The High School in a Changing World. Washington, D.C.: American Association of School Administrators, 1958. Pp. 383. $5.00.

This is the 1958 yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators, prepared by a commission of which John H. Fischer, superintendent at Baltimore, Md., was chairman.

The volume, which is designed to consider the role of American secondary education in the era now opening out before mankind, discusses such topics as pressures and prospects, reaching the needs of all, programs for unity and diversity, extending the common school, the organization of the secondary school, long-range district planning, housing the new high school, resources for progress, and leadership and the administrator.

OTHER MATERIALS RECEIVED:

(For more information on these materials (or on the books reviewed above) use the convenient coupon on page 64.)

ELEMENTARY

What! Science in the Kindergarten? A four-page pamphlet available from National Kindergarten Association, New York City. Free.

A Suggested Keyboard Experience Lesson Plan. Marion S. Egbert. Chicago: American Music Conference, 1958. Pp. 26. For teaching elementary music. Free.

Reading and Literature in the Language Arts: Grades 1-6. Curriculum bulletin of New York City schools. Pp. 90. Available from Publication Sales Office, N. Y. City Board of Education, 110 Livingston St., Brooklyn 1, N. Y. $.50.

Developmental Reading in the Springfield Public Schools. Instructional Guidelines Bulletin No. 1 of Springfield, Mo., Public Schools. Available from Office of Public Information, Springfield Public Schools, 940 N. Jefferson, Springfield 2, Mo. $2.00.

The Second R, 1958; A Report on Handwriting in the United States. A 16-page booklet available from the Handwriting Foundation, 1426 G St., N.W., Washington 5, D. C.

SECONDARY

The Purple Giraffes. Louise Van Metre. New York: Exposition Press, Inc., 1958. Pp. 130. $3.00. True stories of teen-age problem-posing children.

Spelling and Word Power. Dean R. Malsbary. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1958. Pp. x + 131. $2.48.

Woods and Woodworking for Industrial Arts. Delmar W. Olson. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1958. Pp. xi + 235. $4.00.

Handbook of Co-Ed Teen Activities. Edythe and David DeMarche. New York: Association Press, 1958. Pp. 640. $7.95.

Adventures in Science at the Smithsonian. E. John Long and George Weiner. A 24-page illustrated booklet published by the Smithsonian Institution, Washington, D. C. Available from Colortone Press, 2412 Seventeenth St., N.W., Washington 9, D. C. $.25. Discounts in quantity.

Guide to Curriculum Improvement in Grades 7-8-9. Curriculum bulletin of New York City Board of Education. Pp. 114. Available from Publications Sales Office, New York City Board of Education, 110 Livingston St., Brooklyn 1, N. Y. $.50.

Your Future in Science. Morris Meister and Paul F. Brandwein.

Chicago: Science Research Associates, 1958. Pp. 56. $.60. Discounts in quantity. One of the "Modern World of Science" booklets.

College

How to Get into College. Frank H. Bowles. New York: E. P. Dutton & Company, 1958. Pp. viii + 157. $2.95.

Full-Time Student Teaching. William V. Hicks and Clare C. Walker. East Lansing, Mich.: Michigan State University Press, 1958. Pp. vii + 146. $3.25.

Educational Psychology. (Revised Edition.) Lawrence E. Cole and William F. Bruce. Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y.: World Book Company, 1958. Pp. xiv + 701. $6.25.

Definitions of Professional Terms in Educational Psychology. Nick J. Topetzes and Henry R. Horvat. Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Company, 1958. Pp. v + 116. $1.50.

Guidance

New Dimensions in Counseling Students; A Case Approach. Carolyn A. Sechrist. New York: Teachers College Bureau of Publications, Columbia University, 1958. Pp. viii + 119. $3.00.

Vocational Training Directory of the United States. (Third Edition.) Compiled by Nathan M. Cohen. Arlinton, Va.: Potomac Press, 1958. Pp. vi + 227. $2.95. Lists over 7000 schools offering vocational training.

Guidance Aids for a Stronger America. Harry D. Lovelass and Paul B. Hale. Washington, D. C.: National Aviation Education Council, 1958. Pp. 83. $.75.

General

Constructive Classroom Control. Irwin O. Addicott. Los Altos, Calif.: Howard Chandler, Publisher, 1958. Pp. 64. $1.40. A teacher's guide.

Reading for Effective Living. Edited by J. Allen Figurel. New York: Scholastic Magazines, 1958. Pp. 208. $2.00. Conference proceedings of the International Reading Association, 1958.

For Brethren Only. Kermit Eby. Elgin, Ill.: The Brethren Press, 1958. Pp. 234. $3.00. A series of reflections on the Christian way of life.

Wisdom; Conversations with the Elder Wise Men of Our Day. Edited by James Nelson. New York: W. W. Norton & Company, Inc., 1958. Pp. xiii + 273. $3.95. Conversations with 24 great men of our day, adapted from the television broadcasts on "Wisdom."

Hearing Tests for School Children—and How to Conduct Them. Ellis E. Singer. Pp. 21 Available from Audiometer Division, Beltone Hearing Aid Company, 2900 W. 36th St., Chicago, Ill.

Why Did This Have to Happen: An Open Letter to Parents. Earl Schenck Miers. **Your Child's Play.** Grace Langdon. Chicago: National Society for Crippled Children and Adults, Inc., 1957. Pp. 28 and 25. $.25 each. The first pamphlet deals with the author's conquest of cerebral palsy. The second deals with providing play materials for physically handicapped children.

Materials for Reading. Edited by Helen M. Robinson. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1958. Pp. vii + 231. $3.50. Talks given at the Reading Conference, University of Chicago, 1957.

1959 Missiles and Rockets Encyclopedia. Venice, Calif.: Revell, Inc., 1958. Pp. 31. Free.

Recent American Literature. Donald M. Heiney. Great Neck, N. Y.: Barron's Educational Series, Inc., 1958. Pp. 600. $1.95, paper; $3.95, cloth.

Book of American Indian Games. Allan A. Macfarlan. New York: Association Press, 1958. Pp. 284. $3.95.

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Teacher Shortage—Causes and Remedies. Washington, D. C.: World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession, 1958. Pp. 60. Includes reports from 41 member organizations.

A Guide to Effective Speaking. Elbert R. Moses. New York: Vantage Press, 1957. Pp. xi + 114. $2.95.

Audio-Visuals

Educators Guide to Free Slidefilms. (Tenth Edition.) Randolph, Wis.: Educators Progress Service, 1958. Pp. viii + 206. $6.00.

A-V on the Air. New York: Audio-Visual Commission on Public Information, 1958. Pp. 19. $.25. Discounts in quantity.

Audio-Visual Instruction. Paul R. Wendt. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1958. Pp. 32. $.25. Discounts in quantity. Bulletin No. 14 in "What Research Says to the Teacher" series.

Classroom 21. Available from Motorola, Inc., Chicago. A new type of television receiver designed for classroom use.

Product Design Kits in Electricity, Conservation, Physics, and Chemistry. Includes teachers manual. Available from Product Design Company, Redwood City, Calif.

America's Products and the Trucks that Carry Them. A 37" x 24" wall chart in color showing principal products of each state. Single copies free from Educational Services Department, Automobile Manufacturers Association, 320 New Center Building, Detroit 2, Mich.

National Film Board of Canada Catalog of 16mm Films. A 36-page catalog of films available for purchase and rental in the U. S. For a copy write the National Film Board of Canada, 630 Fifth Ave., New York 20, N. Y.

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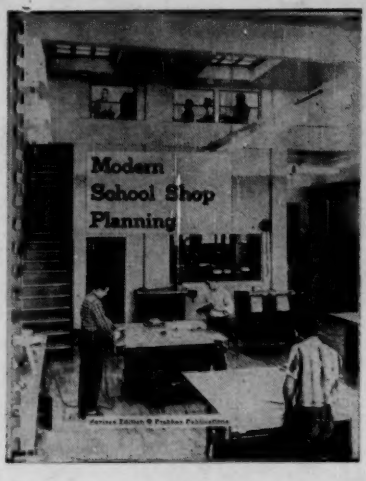

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